THE ROLE OF ETHICAL FRAMES AND VALUES ON TEACHER INTERACTION WITH ACADEMIC POLICIES

A Dissertation

by

TALESA SMITH KIDD

Submitted to the Office of Graduate Studies of
Texas A&M University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

May 2010

Major Subject: Educational Administration

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Approved by:

Chair of Committee,	Mario S. Torres, Jr.
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ABSTRACT

The Role of Ethical Frames and Values on Teacher Interaction with Academic Policies.

(May 2010)

Talesa Smith Kidd, B.S., Texas A&M University;

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Chair of Advisory Committee: Dr. Mario S. Torres, Jr.

The No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, fundamentally changed the focus of education in the United States from that of providing an opportunity for all to learn to mandating that all do learn. Central to this Act are the measures of school accountability established through assessment of learning policies. The development of these policies initiate with federal, state, and local governance bodies, but implementation takes place by individual teachers. Therefore, the failure of individual teachers to implement assessment policies with fidelity creates a fissure at the core of institutional credibility. The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between teachers' values and ethical frames and behavior with respect to academic misconduct. Findings offer clues as to how academic dishonesty might be reduced.

There exists a large body of research that has probed academic dishonesty, values and ethical frames; however, there appears to be a void in research that distinctly connects the three. Utilizing a survey instrument, data were collected from elementary teachers (N=155) in one suburban school district. The collected data were then analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistical tests to inform six research questions.

In some incidents, the small sample size produced violations of the assumptions of nonparametric statistical tests, thus hindering deeper analysis of selected data. However, the results in general appeared to support the hypothesis that elementary teachers appeared to engage in academic misconduct. The findings also appeared to suggest misconduct was influenced by social adaptation theory ($R^2_N = .32$); organizational socialization (Wald (1) =5.79, $p < .05$), values (Wald (1) =5.16, $p < .05$), and ethical frames (Wald (4) =25.22, $p < .001$). Thus, this study concluded that factors such as collaboration and professional development can possibly be utilized to reduce policy violations.

DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this study to: the teachers and administrators who toil in schools across our nation; to those who attack each day with enthusiasm, drive, and determination to ensure learning for each and every student; and to those educators who reach deeply into their hearts and minds to unselfishly give of themselves to facilitate student growth both academically and socially. In spite of the obstacles and seemingly continuous uphill battle to meet the needs of America's diverse population of school children, those educators who ethically fight to provide education that is always in the best interest of the child, I am honored to call you colleagues.

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There are many individuals who have provided invaluable support and encouragement to me on this educational journey.

First I would like to express sincere gratitude to my dissertation committee, Drs. Lynne Walters, John Hoyle, Jean Madsen, and Mario Torres, whose overall support and assistance strengthened this work. I would also like to thank each of you for the individual contributions you made to this endeavor. Dr. Lynne Walters, thank you for graciously serving on my committee and for your input that helped me look through a more global lens. Dr. John Hoyle, I thank you for your perspective, your enthusiasm for your work and the work of others, and for your undying "Aggie Spirit". Dr. Jean Madsen, thank you for all the extra hours spent helping me develop a strong research foundation, and for your strength and commitment to quality. Dr. Mario Torres, thank you for the many "discussions" that helped to clarify the study and strengthen the statistical model. Also, thank you for your help with the various presentations and networking. As a committee, you have individually and collectively made this process interesting and memorable.

I would like to thank the district that approved this study. I applaud the upper administration of the surveyed district. These individuals saw the benefit of the study and were not deterred, as others had been, by the sensitive nature of the subject matter. It is a reflection of the strong ethical core of the district and campus administrators that encouraged teachers to participate.

Recognition and gratitude go to several individuals who have contributed to the technical aspects of this research. First, thank you to Dr. Jacqueline Stefkovich, Professor of School Law and Head of the Department of Education Policy Studies at The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA, for her invaluable input and for taking the time to review the survey instrument. Also, thank you to Sue Tull, Deena Darroh, Karen Foster, and Tonya LeClair for proof reading various sections of the document.

To my colleagues at work, I wish to thank you for your interest, support, and for coverage when I was away.

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Lastly and most importantly, I would like to express thanks to my family. My parents have always encouraged and supported my growth. My daughter has supported my educational pursuits and provided taxi service as requested. Finally to my husband, thank you for the love, support, and patience you have demonstrated each time I have returned to school.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Since the enactment of Public Law 107-110, better known as the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB), there seemed to be a rise in the number of public education teachers violating academic policies as documented by various studies and public reports (Bruhn, Zajac. Al-Kazemi, & Prescott, 2002; Cummings, Maddux, Harlow, & Dyas, 2002; Evetts, 2006; Storm & Storm, 2007). These negative reports stand to diminish the reputation of not only the individual teacher, but also the school and the institution of public education. Thus to maintain support for their local education agencies and the institution of public education, school leaders must work with teachers to reduce or, preferably, eliminate policy violations. In light of the void in the literature specifically addressing the relationship between elementary/secondary teachers and academic dishonesty, theories or models were sought that may explain teachers engagement in academic policy violations.

Theories and Models

Theory, as defined by Kerlinger (1986), is "a set of interrelated constructs (concepts), definitions, and propositions that present a systematic view of phenomena by specifying relations among variables with purpose of explaining and predicting phenomena" (p.9). In this study, several theories and models deserve mention. Even though some educators may discredit their importance (Bates, 1980), theories and models give the

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This dissertation follows the style of the *American Educational Research Journal.*

practitioner a guide through which practical phenomena might be better understood. Education administrators, as our focus, deal with a wide variety of people and tasks. Without a guiding structure, administrators would be left to trial and error in every situation.

Knowing theories and models helps the administrator understand the complexity of educational organizations. This knowledge better equips the administrator to break the system into parts and evaluate how the parts operate, both independently and interdependently. Selected theories also allow the administrator to see how people and their individual needs and abilities affect the system. Finally, theories and models highlight how the actions of the leader affect the followers and thus the system as a whole (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2000; Razik & Swanson, 1995).

The commonly studied social systems model was useful in designing the inquiry process. Hoy and Miskel (2005) defined social systems as peopled, comprised of interdependent parts, goal oriented, hierarchical, normative, sanction bearing, political, cultured, and affected by the outside environment. They went on to state school systems, being social systems, create a transformation by using teaching and learning as a means for people to ignite the cognition and motivation of other individuals to work through the cultural and political environment to attain high levels of student success (Hoy & Miskel, 2005). Since the needs of the individuals and the expectations of the organization are not always parallel, the interaction or ratio of these two factors vary by organization. The general interaction was postulated to exist on a sliding scale in which organizational control was inversely proportional to individual need.

To further illuminate the interaction between organization and individual, this study reviewed the work of Getzels and Guba (1957). From their perspective, social system model

contained two divisions: nomothetic and idiographic. The nomothetic or normative dimension was comprised of three elements: institution, role of the individual within the organization, and the role expectation. The idiographic or personal dimension was composed of the individual, personality, and need-dispositions. From this model, the observed behavior of an individual was a function of the role expectation with the individual's personality as defined by the needs expectations of that individual: B=*f* (RxP) (Getzels & Guba, 1957).

To make the connection, schools are institutions designed to meet the educational needs of society. As such, a school is a social system which may be explained by Getzels and Guba's model (Getzels & Guba, 1957; Hoy & Miskel, 2005; Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2000). On the nomothetic side of the institution, there are various roles: students, teachers, and administrators. Each role carries a set of expectations not only in terms of the tasks but also in terms of the quality of task performance (Getzels & Guba, 1957). In schools, these expectations are communicated through policies and procedures (Kelley, Bradley, & Demott, 2006). On the idiographic side of the institution resides the collection of individuals that make up the system. Each individual is unique in terms of personal characteristics. These characteristics help identify the personality and needs of the individual. From the equation given above, B=*f* (RxP), the observed behavior (B) was a result of the individual's attempt to satisfy his or her individual/ personal needs (P) within the expectations of the role (R) dictated by the institution. Thus, it behooves the school leader to understand the conflicts that may arise as individuals (teachers) wrestle with their own personalities and needs in relation to the needs and expectations of the organization (adherence to academic policies). It is through this understanding that the leader can operate to increase the probability of each

individual behaving in a manner that aligns with the individual's needs and the expectations of the institution.

Understanding that conflicts will arise is a useful first step. However, this information does little to identify and understand the deeper underlying factors of the conflict. Specifically to this research, one must ask what mitigating factor(s), if any, drive some teachers to violate academic policy. The review of the literature sought to answer this question by investigating academic dishonesty (Cizek, 1999; Cummings et al., 2002; Finn, & Frone, 2004; McCabe, 1999; McCabe, Trevino, & Butterfield, 2001) in the context of high stakes testing using the theoretical frame of social adaptation theory (Kahle, 1983), which can be subdivided into values (Feather, 1975; Homer & Kahle, 1988; Rokeach, 1973; Rosenberg, 1957), ethics (Shapiro & Stefkovich, 2005; Sims 1994; van Gigch, 2003), and organizational socialization (Brown, 2000; Sims, 1994; van Gigch, 2006). A brief introduction to the context and frames is provided below.

Academic Dishonesty. The focus of this study, which served as the primary dependent variable, was academic dishonesty. Academic dishonesty, operationally defined as the violation of an academic policy, has been a concern and topic of research for decades (Cizek, 1999; Cummings et al., 2002; Finn & Frone, 2004; McCabe, 1999; McCabe et al., 2001). During this time, the spotlight of research has been directed at students, but recent reports of teacher participation have been published (Bruhn et al., 2002; Evetts, 2006; Storm & Storm, 2007). The literature indicated that this progression from student to adult should not come as a surprise. First, it has been clearly shown that a correlation exists between student academic dishonesty and ethical failure in the work place (Cummings et al., 2002; Davy, Kincaid, Smith, & Trawick, 2007). Secondly, the literature has noted pressure and

conflict as contributors to ethical failure (Colgan, 2004; O'Neill, 2003, Son Hing, Bobocel, Zanna, & McBride, 2007; Stefkovich, 2006). In the context of this study, teachers have reported that the expectations associated with the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 have created feelings of extreme pressure. These pressures are reported to create conflict between the teacher and the educational organization (Booher-Jennings, 2005; Whisnant, 1988) that aligned with the nomothetic and idiographic dimensions of Getzels & Guba's Social Systems Model. While this model provided a framework for understanding conflict, it fell short of providing insight into the factors within the idiographic dimension that led to individual choice and observed behavior. The required deeper understanding of the idiographic dimension was sought in the constructs of social adaptation theory.

Social Adaptation Theory. Through his work in marketing research, Lynn Kahle (1983) believed that choices and behaviors could be informed by social adaptation theory. This theory was derived by mixing ontology and epistemology. Simply stated, the theory was derived from the interaction of socialization with values and ethics. For his purpose, adaptation was defined as a dynamic change process involving both the environment and the individual. Kahle limited the focus to "societal, role and psychological adaptation" (p. 49). In his view, individuals developed adaptive strategies to cope with their social environment and to increase their adaptive worth. The action or behavior selected in any given situation was guided by individuals' values and ethics. Of interest in this inquiry was the manner in which K-12 public education teachers' values and ethics guided their behaviors when making decisions involving academic policies. While values and ethics were common terms, each had specific meaning in context to this theory. Those meanings were briefly described below.

Values. Values, as applied to social adaptation, were defined as the most basic characteristic of social cognition. Rokeach (1973) stated that the "concept of values, more than any other, was the core concept across all social science" (p. ix). As a result, values guided the attitude and action of individuals and were utilized to resolve conflict. The conflict of consequence to this analysis rested between a teacher's attitude regarding student performance and academic policies. A value system was the hierarchal arrangement one gave to a basic set of values. Studies by Feather (1975), Rokeach (1973), and Rosenberg (1957), along with Homer & Kahle (1988) each stated that an individual's hierarchical arrangement of values in some way accurately predicted choices and social behavior. Even though some ordering might fluctuate over time, the polar values were noted to be highly stable and gave insight to an individual's locus of control (Kahle, 1983; Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1992). As an independent influence, this study sought a possible relationship between a teacher's dominant value and academic dishonesty.

Ethics. The second component identified as part of social adaptation was ethics. Even though they were closely aligned in the general literature, Kahle (1983) made a distinction between values and ethics. In his structure, values guided end states while ethics guided a moral course of action. More commonly stated, values aligned to the ends while ethics aligned to the means. Ethics or ethical frames, which are built upon axiology and epistemology (Feather, 1975), guide one's actions by filtering information. Thus actions or decisions were bound by the amount and type of information that an individual considered. This consideration was determined by the individual's ethical paradigm or frame. Of interest to this inquiry was the existence of a possible relationship between a teacher's ethical frame and academic misconduct. Even though many types of ethical frames have been identified in

the literature, such as social Darwinism (Starratt, 1996), utilitarianism (Sims, 1994; Tenbrunsel & Messick, 1999), community (Furman, 2003), Judeo-Christian, Hobbesian or Wilsonian (Casmir, 1997), the frames for this study were limited to the four included in the work of Shapiro & Stefkovich (2005).

Shapiro & Stefkovich (2005) listed and described four ethical frames used by educators: (a) the ethic of justice, (b) the ethic of care, (c) the ethic of critique, and (d) the ethic of profession. The ethic of justice was the most traditional and was concerned with fair and just application of traditional laws or rules (Bluemfeld-Jones, 2004; Faircloth, 2004; Furman, 2003). After its inception by Carol Gilligan (Enomoto, 1997; Spader, 2002), Nel Noddings was credited with extending the development of the ethic of care. This paradigm was based in the relationship between the "one caring" and the one being "cared for" (Bluemfeld-Jones, 2004; Noddings, 1984). The ethic of critique was based on critical theory. The crux of this frame was not to simply uncover injustices, but to take action and correct the injustice or oppression (Arononwitz & Giroux, 1985; Freire, 1970; Furman, 2003; Giroux, 1988; McCray & Beachum, 2006). The ethic of profession was conceived by Shapiro and Stefkovich (2005). Under investigation here was their statement that there were often tensions between the ethical codes of the profession and the judgments and actions of the individual. They acknowledged that a school leader who responds ethically was one who had struggled with the concepts of justice, care, and critique and had come to terms with the fact that decisions must be made in the "best interest of the child" (Stefkovich, 2006).

Organizational Socialization. The final component of Kahle's social adaptation theory was organizational socialization. This component reflected the actions organizations took to ensure individual members were enculturated (Sims, 1994). This process generally

began with an orientation to guidelines or policies (McCabe, Trevino, & Butterfield. 1999). However, according to Kahle (1983), adaptation was a dynamic process involving the individual and the organization. Thus, ongoing actions of the organization, more specifically ongoing interactions of the individuals within the organization, were required to reduce the conflicts described by Getzels & Guba (1957) and to increase the likelihood members would adhere to organizational policies (Bruhn et al., 2002; Kelley et al., 2006; McCabe, 2005; Sims, 1994). These components worked together to illuminate the problem and define the purpose of this inquiry.

Problem Statement

Since the ratification of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, the mandate of elementary and secondary public education has moved from providing educational opportunities to ensuring all students learn. Along with this mandate come increased accountability measures, such as high stakes testing. One of the intentions of high stakes testing is to ensure that all students are learning. The implementation of this particular accountability measure seems to coincide with an increased number of teachers committing academic violations (Bruhn et al., 2002; Cummings et al., 2002; Evetts, 2006; Storm & Storm, 2007). Each time such violations are reported, the teacher, school and the institution of public education stand to lose support from the public at large. To maintain support for their local education agencies and the institution of public education, school leaders must work with teachers to reduce or preferably, eliminate policy violations.

Eliminating violations may at first appear to be a simple issue, but upon further examinations, complexities emerge. No longer do sanctions appear to deter educators from

engaging in academic dishonesty (Bruhn et al., 2002; Evetts, 2006; Storm & Storm, 2007). With an increase in the number of children of color failing to meet academic standards, more teachers seem to be willing to engage in irrational behaviors. These teachers appear to have a difficulty aligning the legal mandates with their concern for the best interest of the child. Furthermore, there are issues with the assumption that all teachers have the ability to teach all children to mastery (McDonnell & Elmore, 1987). Thus this seemingly simple issue requires deeper analysis to determine if there are factors associated with academic dishonesty that could possibly be used to deter academic misconduct by public education teachers.

Purpose of Study

As public servants, teachers are entrusted to uphold the public good through personal integrity and competence. The behaviors of teachers, both inside and outside the classroom, are of interest to the public and often attract media attention. Each time the media reports incidents of academic dishonesty or misconduct (Bruhn et al., 2002; Cummings et al., 2002; Evetts, 2006; Storm & Storm, 2007), prior studies suggest public opinion and trust of public education is diminished. Since quality public education requires community and parental support, schools cannot afford to lose trust over academic improprieties. The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between social adaptation theory (composed of values, ethical frames and organizational socialization) and teachers' self-reported action which violated an academic policy.

Rationale for the Study

A large body of research looks distinctly at the components of this research: academic dishonesty (Cizeck, 1999; Davis, Grover, Becker, & McGregor, 1992; Ferrell & Daniel, 1995, Finn & Frone, 2004; McCabe, 1999; McCabe, Trevino, & Butterfield, 2001), organizational socialization (Brown, 2000; Sims, 1994; van Gigch, 2006), values (Feather, 1975; Homer & Kahle, 1988; Rokeach, 1973; Rosenberg, 1957), and ethical frames (Shapiro & Stefkovich, 2005; Sims 1994; van Gigch, 2003) . However, there appears to be a void in research that connected these frames. Also notably absent in the literature is research which investigates academic misconduct by K-12 public school teachers (Bruhn et al., 2002; Evetts, 2006; Storm & Storm, 2007). This study contributes to the literature in two ways. First, the study investigates how organizational socialization, values, and ethical frames together contribute to social adaption theory in an educational setting. Secondly, the inquiry seeks to determine the manner in which these factors influence a teacher's decisions when interacting with grading policies and high-stakes testing guidelines. By isolating possible influencing factors, the education community can take actions to reduce or preferably eliminate academic misconduct among public education teachers.

Methodology

As outlined by Creswell (2003), a research study must create a match between the "problem and the approach" (p.21) This study, as an attempt to validate social adaptation theory (Kahle, 1983) by "identifying factors that influence outcome" (Creswell, 2003, p. 21) of teachers decisions when interacting with academic testing and grading policies, required a quantitative design. The study was also designed to extend the quantitative work of Feather

(1975), Kahle (1983), and Rokeach (1973) into an educational setting by utilizing the ethical frames of Shapiro & Stefkovich (2005). For these reasons, the study used a postpositive perspective, "a philosophy in which causes probably determine outcomes" (Creswell, 2003). As such, a survey instrument was designed to provide data to answer the six main research questions and associated sub questions (listed below) through descriptive and inferential statistical tests of frequencies and multiple logistic regression models (Agresti, 2007).

Research Questions

Q1: Is there evidence to suggest that teachers engage in academic misconduct?

Question 1.1: Do teachers self-report violations of academic policies?
Question 1.2: Do more teachers report academic dishonesty when situations are presented in a scenario than when situations are presented directly?

Question 1.3: Do more teachers report violating grading policies than testing policies?

Question 1.4: Does the type of preparation and teaching assignment influence academic misconduct??

Question 1.5: Is there a relationship between age, ethnicity or experience and academic misconduct?

Q2: Is there evidence to suggest a relationship between self-efficacy and the likelihood that teachers will engage in academic misconduct?

Question 2.1: Do all surveyed teachers believe that they can teach all children?

Question 2.2: Do all surveyed teachers believe that they can teach all children to mastery?

Question 2.3: Is there a significant difference in the number of teachers who believe they can teach all children and the number who believe they can teach all children to mastery?

Question 2.4: Is there a relationship between self-efficacy and a teacher's choice to violate high-stakes grading policies?

Question 2.5: Is there a relationship between self-efficacy and a teacher's choice to violate high-stakes testing policy?

Question 2.6: Is there a relationship between self-efficacy and teaching assignment?

Q3: Is there evidence to suggest a relationship between organizational socialization and the likelihood that teachers will engage in academic misconduct?

Question 3.1: Is there a relationship between organizational socialization and a teacher's choice to violate grading policy?

Question 3.2: Is there a relationship between organizational socialization and a teacher's choice to violate high-stakes testing policies?

Q4: Is there evidence to suggest a relationship between values and the likelihood that teachers will engage in academic misconduct?

Question 4.1: Do teachers have similar values?

Question 4.2: Do teachers' values become more similar over time?

Question 4.3: Is there a relationship between age, ethnicity, experience and value types?

Question 4.4: Is there a relationship between self-efficacy and types of values?

Question 4.5: Is there a relationship between types of values and academic misconduct?

Question 4.5a: Is there a relationship between types of values and academic misconduct regarding grading policies?

Question 4.5b: Is there a relationship between types of values and academic misconduct regarding testing policies?

Q5: Is there evidence to suggest a relationship between ethical frames and the likelihood that teachers will engage in academic misconduct?

Question 5.1: Is there a relationship between age, ethnicity, experience, and ethical frames?

Question 5.2: Is there a relationship between violating grading policy and ethical frames?

Question 5.3: Is there a relationship between violating high-stakes testing policy and ethical frames?

Question 5.4: Is there a relationship between values and ethical frames?

Question 5.5: Is there a relationship between self-efficacy and ethical paradigm?

Q6: Is there evidence to suggest that a relationship between social adaptation theory and the likelihood that teachers will engage in academic misconduct?

Question 6.1: Is there a relationship between types of values, ethical frames and academic misconduct?

Limitations

Several limitations or "potential weaknesses" (Creswell, 2003, p. 148) of the study design were anticipated and addressed (Calabrese, 2006). First, this study depended on self-reported data. While some question the reliability of self-reported data, the literature documents that the most reliable methods of determining subjects' participation in cheating or academic misconduct were self-reports (Cizek, 1999; Finn & Frone, 2004). Secondly, the survey instrument asked for data that some might consider sensitive. To help relieve anxiety, an added level of anonymity was provided by enlisting the third party collection system, and the individual was provided the option to discontinue with the survey at any point. Third, this study utilized categorical data that were viewed by some as having lower power. Muijs (2004) reminded the public that when using categorical data any reduction in power was offset by the information that can be best captured in this manner. Fourth, validity and reliability could have come into question with a new instrument. While only time and usage can truly evaluate this instrument, the developmental vetting process went through several iterations with experts and focus groups. Finally, several reminders were sent to optimize response rate.

Delimitations

The researcher chose to delimit or "narrow the scope" (Creswell, 2003, p. 148) this study in several ways. First, the decision to limit the study to elementary teachers enabled the study to use the grounded work of Schwartz (1992) to support the axiom of Rokeach

(1973) stating those of a given occupation demonstrated similar values. Secondly, Kahle's List of Values (LOV) was utilized instead of the longer and more complex Rokeach's Survey of Values (RSV). The LOV, composed of eight value selections as opposed to 36 in the RSV, was reported in correlation studies (Homer & Kahle, 1988) to perform at test-retest reliability of 0.73. Clawson & Vinson (1978) support the use of the LOV because each of the eight values has relevance in daily life. Also, the shorten values test helped allow the overall survey to be completed within the target time frame of 20 minutes while still providing parsimony. Third, to reduce erroneous results by screening for a possible confounding factor (Agresti, 2007; Mertner & Vannatta, 2005), any respondent not expressing a thorough understanding of state and local academic policy was removed from the data sample. Finally, the ethical constructs of this study were limited to those identified by Shapiro & Stefkovich (2005).

Assumptions

It was assumed by the researcher that respondents would closely read each question and answer honestly from the perspective detailed in the instrument. Secondly, it was assumed each respondent would respond independently of other respondents.

Definitions

The following terms have varied definitions within the literature. For clarity in this study, the following definitions were utilized:

Academic dishonesty or academic misconduct - defined by Ferrell & Daniel (1995) as "dishonest acts connected with coursework, such as cheating on tests, examination, and

assignments" (p. 347). That definition will be expanded for this study to include any violation of an established policy or procedure established by either a state or local school board. Academic dishonesty, academic misconduct, cheating, policy violation, and ethical failure were used interchangeably in this study.

Ethics -guide to a moral course of action (Kahle, 1983)

Ethical frame or paradigm - ethical framework based on axiology and epistemology (Feather, 1975) that guides an individual's world view (van Gigch, 2003); "a distillation of what we think about the world but cannot prove (Lincoln and Guba, 1985, p.15)

Ethic of Justice- the most traditional frame of the selection; concerned with fair and just application of traditional laws or rules (Bluemfeld-Jones, 2004; Faircloth, 2004; Furman, 2003).

Ethic of care- frame based in the relationship between the "one caring" and the "cared for" (Bluemfeld-Jones, 2004; Noddings, 1984). Those guided by this frame tend to be more concerned with the development of the individual (student) than stick adherence to rules.

Ethic of critique- frame based on critical theory. The crux of this paradigm is not to simply uncover injustices, but to take action and correct the injustice or oppression (Freire, 1970; Furman, 2003; McCray & Beachum, 2006).

Ethic of profession- frame conceived by Shapiro and Stefkovich (2005). They acknowledge that a school leader who responds ethically is one who has struggled with the concepts of justice, care, and critique and who has come to terms with the fact that there are often tensions between the ethical codes of the profession and judgments and actions of the individual and thus base decisions on the "best interest of the child" (Stefkovich, 2006).

No Child Left Behind (NCLB)- 2001 Act – federal legislation enacted in 2001 holding all public schools accountable for student success as defined by state academic achievement measures. Specifically stated, Public Law 107-110 is "An Act to close the achievement gap with accountability, flexibility, and choice so that no child is left behind." (No Child Left Behind Act of 2001)

Organizational socialization-actions taken by members of an organization to unify assumptions, beliefs and actions (Brown, 2000; Davis et al., 1992; Kahle, 1983; Meyer, Becker, & Vadenberghe, 2004; Sims, 1994)

Postpositivisim - "an epistemological doctrine that asserts an objective reality, but one that cannot be known from a value-free perspective and with absolute certainty" (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2006, p.649)

Social adaptation- defined by Kahle (1983) as adaptive strategies individuals develop in order to cope with their social environment and to increase their adaptive worth

Theory- "a set of interrelated constructs (variables), definitions, and propositions that presents a systematic view of phenomena by specifying relations among variables, with the purpose of explaining natural phenomena" (Kerlinger quoted in Creswell, 2003, p. 120).

Terminal values- care for the end result (Rokeach, 1973)

Instrumental values- care for the means to a result (Rokeach, 1973)

Value -a guide to end states (Kahle, 1983); "an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converge mode of conduct or end-state of existence" (Rokeach, 1973, p.ix)

Organization

The dissertation is organized in five chapters. This first chapter gives an overview of the study and sets the context. It defines the purpose and implications of the study as well as defining common terms of the study. Chapter II reviews literature to provide the reader with a summary of existing research that supports the theoretical frames of this study. Chapter III will outline the development of the data collection instrument and the methodology to analyze the data produced from the study. Chapter IV provides the reader with the results from the survey and the data analysis. Finally, Chapter V summarizes the findings and suggests avenues of further study.

Summary

This study was identified in Chapter I as an investigation of academic dishonesty committed by teachers in the context of accountability and high stakes testing. It provided insight into the need for theories (Bates, 1980) to lay the foundation for this postpositive (Creswell, 2003) study using Getzels and Guba's (Getzels & Guba, 1957) social systems model. The first sections of the chapter provided a brief glimpse of the literature on academic dishonesty (Cizek, 1999; Cummings et al., 2002; Finn & Frone, 2004; McCabe, 1999; McCabe et al., 2001). It also identified the theoretical frame of social adaptation (Kahle, 1983), which is composed of values (Rokeach, 1973), ethical frames (Shapiro & Stefkovich, 2005), and organizational socialization (Sims, 1994). The concluding sections further framed the inquiry by articulating the problem statement, purpose and rational for the study. The methodology was identified as quantitative using logistic regression (Agresti, 2007) and the

research questions were listed. Also identified were the limitations, delimitations, assumptions and clarifying definitions of the study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Chapter II extends the overview presented in Chapter I. It provides a more in-depth review of literature used to clarify the context and to develop the theoretical framework of this study. The review focused on: (a) definitions, (b) theories and models, (c) constructs, (d) measurement, (e) relationships between constructs of academic dishonesty and selected predictor constructs, and (f) a summary of previously reported research.

From the original pillar of academic dishonesty emerged the following constructs: organizational socialization, ethical frames, and values. Organizational socialization, ethical frames, and values, are captured reasonably well by social adaptation theory, and they serve as a suitable frame to examine academic dishonesty.

Introduction to This Study

This review of literature sought to provide information on a connection between public K-12 education teachers and academic dishonesty against the backdrop of high-stakes accountability. While statistics that specifically addressed academic dishonesty committed by K-12 teachers were not found, information was uncovered that helped frame and contextualize this inquiry. The literature revealed academic misconduct was an age-old problem (Davis et al., 1992; Ferrell & Daniel, 1995; Whitely, 1998). It also exposed student participation at all levels of education, including students enrolled in colleges of education

(Cummings et al., 2002; Ferrell & Daniel, 1995). A limited number of studies (Bruhn et al., 2002; Cummings et al., 2002; Hamilton, 2006) connected professors to academic misconduct. Even though there appears to be a void in the empirical literature linking K-12 teachers to academic dishonesty, the literature (Davy et al., 2007; Lovett-Hopper, Komarraju, Weston, & Dollinger, 2007) suggests that there is a high probability that K-12 teachers engage in academic misconduct.

Four motivating factors for academic dishonesty were extracted from the literature for further research: self efficacy (Evans & Craig, 1990; Finn & Frone, 2004; Murdock, Hale, & Weber, 2001; Schab, 1991), values, (Begley, 1996; Rokeach, 1973), ethical frames (Sims, 1994; van Gigch, 2003), and organizational socialization (Bruhn et al., 2002; Kelley et al., 2006; McCabe, 2005). These factors appear to significantly guide the action of individuals and thus the individual's decision to violate an academic policy. Two of the factors, self-efficacy (Finn & Frone, 2004; Murdock et al., 2001) and organizational socialization (Brown, 2000; Sims, 1994; van Gigch, 2006), had been evaluated in relation to their interplay with acts of academic dishonesty and shown to be contributors to actions of ethical failure. The other two factors, values and ethical frames, had been evaluated and disclosed as contributors to actions or behaviors in marketing research (Homer & Kahle, 1988; Kahle, 1983) but not in the context of education.

Based on the information from the literature review, the current investigation will seek to achieve four goals. First, the study will strive to fill the identified voids in the literature. Second, it will seek to determine if teacher actions parallel those of students. Third, the inquiry will also seek to inform the literature by investigating the identified components of action (Figure 2.1) to determine if and how the interaction of self-efficacy,

organizational socialization, values, and ethical frames affect educators dealing with academic policies in an age of high-stakes accountability.

Figure 2.1. **Components of Action**

Finally, the study will strive to answer if each of the identified factors works independently or if they are interdependent as suggested by Kahle's social adaptation theory (Kahle, 1983). Without empirical data, it was postulated that in an environment of high-stakes accountability, each factor would contribute equally (Figure 2.2) to a teacher's action when interacting with academic policies.

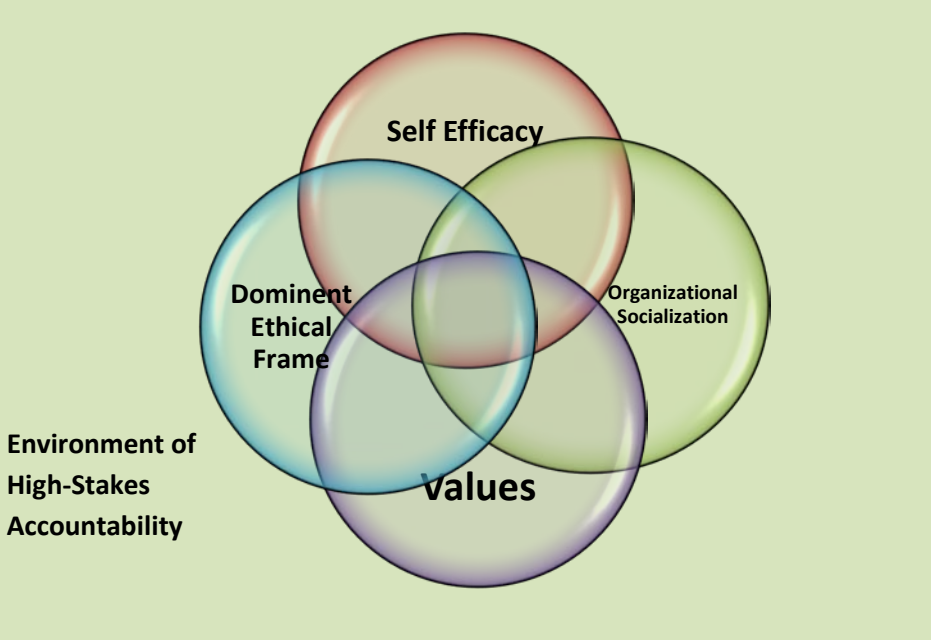

Figure 2.2. **Theoretical Interaction of Components**

Again, the purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between social adaptation theory (organizational socialization, values, and ethical frames) and teacher's self-reported behavior in respect to academic misconduct. The literature review (Figure 2.3) began with an overview of existing research on academic misconduct. That literature was subdivided into two tiers. The first tier searched the literature to identify who participates and reasons for participation in academic dishonesty. The second tier provided clarification for the selected frames of the study.

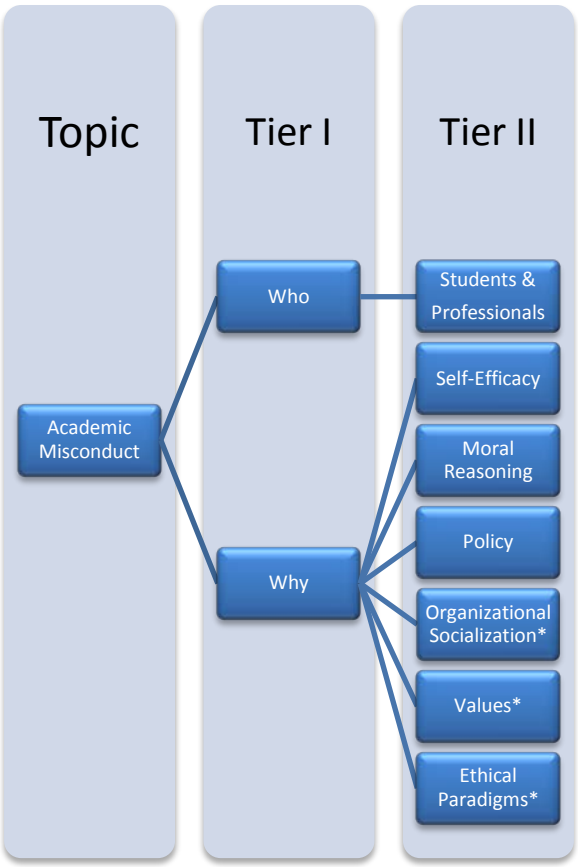

Figure 2.3. **Literature Review Schematic**
(*Components of Social Adaptation Theory)

To better understand the each component, this literature review will begin by providing a deeper examination of the research on academic dishonesty.

Academic Misconduct

Definition and Occurrences. "Academic misconduct" was defined by Ferrell & Daniel (1995) as "dishonest acts connected with coursework, such as cheating on tests, examination, and assignments" (p. 347). These actions were also known as cheating, academic dishonesty, or ethical failure. Regardless of the exact term, each referred to the

violation of an academic policy. This violation has been highlighted as a social problem that dates back hundreds of years to the Chinese civil servant exams. As a topic of research, it has been reported in the literature since the turn of the century and has become a focus since the 1970's (Davis et al., 1992; Ferrell & Daniel, 1995; Whitely, 1998). These early reports spotlighted the examinee. In the last few years, there have been public reports (Bruhn et al., 2002; Evetts, 2006; Storm & Storm, 2007) of teachers, the examiners, engaging in academic dishonesty while preparing or administering high-stakes tests. However, of interest to this study was the lack of theoretical or empirical studies involving kindergarten through twelfth grade (K-12) teachers in regard to any form of academic dishonesty. Without comparable participant groups, the review of literature required including studies of all age groups to investigate both the methods and motivations for engaging in academic dishonesty. From the documented literature, studies of academic dishonesty have focused on adolescents, college students, and professors. Even though the focus of this study was adults, past studies on younger participants informed this inquiry because students of yesterday are the teachers of today. Also, studies regarding professors and other professional adults gave insight to the behaviors of professional educators. The review began with studies involving students.

At the adolescent and college student level, academic misconduct was exemplified in its most common manner, that of students attempting to obtain a grade in a fraudulent manner. This action was regarded as a violation of standard procedure (Cizek, 1999). The published studies (Cizek, 1999; Cummings et al., 2002; Ferrell & Daniel, 1995; Finn, & Frone, 2004; McCabe, 1999; McCabe et al., 2001) identified several reoccurring methods for students to display academic dishonesty while taking an exam or completing homework assignments. Those methods included: giving answers to another or taking answers from

another during a test; unauthorized collaboration on tests or homework; plagiarism; using cheat sheets; reporting false grading errors; attempting to bias instructors; falsifying bibliographies. These studies documented that cheating took place at all grade levels from elementary through college. The studies also detailed that the percentage of students admitting to cheating ranged from 25% to 75%; the highest incidence appeared to occur during high school (Cizek, 1999).

Taken in aggregate, the studies of university students (in various majors spread across several colleges) found academic dishonesty was not localized in any one college. Even with evidence of broad participation, of foremost interest to this study was the behavior of education majors and students enrolled in teacher preparation programs. The study by Cummings et al., (2002) determined education majors cheated at approximately the same percentage (75%) as those from other majors; while Ferrell and Daniel (1995) reported approximately 50% of pre-service teachers acknowledged engaging in academic dishonesty than did students in other career paths.

Research by Davy et al. (2007) reported that once a person began to cheat in school, the person was more likely to engage in dishonest behavior in subsequent academic settings and in the workplace. Cummings et al. (2002) specifically expressed concern that if pre-service and education majors reported cheating in college, they would continue to cheat as teachers. These reports were reinforced by the regression analysis of Lovett-Hooper et al., (2007) which utilized the Imagined Futures Inventory and the Academic Dishonesty Scale to investigate the correlation between academic dishonesty and norm/rule violating futures. Their data produced significant correlations between all subscales of the two instruments and indicated that 36% of the variance in the norm/rule violation could be explained by the

Academic Dishonesty Scale. Thus, Lovett-Hopper et al. (2007) concluded that "those who show a lack of academic integrity in college may be more likely to violate norms and rules of society or the workplace in the future" (p. 330).

Not only did the previous studies reveal a path that suggests teachers may be more likely to engage in academic misconduct, but the 1999 study by McCabe, Trevino & Butterfield indicated cheating had dramatically increased over the last 30 years. The McCabe research team replicated the study done by Bill Bowers in 1964. The Bowers study investigated 5000 participants from 99 colleges in the United States. He reported that 75% of those sampled indicated that they had engaged in one or more incidents of academic dishonesty. In the McCabe study, the total number of cheating incidences, while higher, was not significantly different from the earlier study; yet, the degree of cheating on exams had increased significantly. As a result of their concern over the increase in academic dishonesty, the states of Delaware, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Texas contracted with a test security company to monitor irregularities on the state's standardized assessments required by the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (Storm & Storm, 2007).

While these previous studies provided essential background information on academic misconduct for the current inquiry, they did not give direct insight to the conduct of teachers. To investigate academic dishonesty at the professional educator level, this review turned to three studies utilizing college professors as the data source (Bruhn et al., 2002; Cummings et al., 2002; Hamilton, 2006). These authors acknowledged the degree of ethic violation among individual faculty members was difficult to quantify since public reports were generally limited to institution violations. However, Bruhn et al. (2002) did highlight that the U. S. government found between 40 to 100 cases of research violations between 1980 and 1990.

Cummings et al. (2002) focused on incidents when professors overlooked student cheating to avoid bureaucratic processes. In review, when academic dishonesty was displayed by adults, it was in the form of plagiarism, data manipulation, or disregard for grading policies (Bruhn et al., 2002; Cummings et al., 2002; Hamilton, 2006). At the K-12 level, plagiarism would not be of concern to this study, but implications of data manipulation or disregard for grading polices would align to the parameters under investigation in the current inquiry.

In review, even though the literature lacked direct studies of K-12 teachers participating in academic dishonesty, it did provide substantial evidence to suggest their participation. The literature clearly indicated cheating or academic misconduct was observed in all age levels (Cizek, 1999), elementary through college, and into the halls of professional educators. At the college level, this phenomena did not discriminate to any given major or department of study (Davis et al., 1992; McCabe, 2001). Also, in the academic community, cheating extended to the ranks of college professors (Bruhn et al., 2002; Cummings et al., 2002; Hamilton, 2006). Yet, from the studies, if there were 50% to 75% (Cizek, 1999) of participants that report engaging in acts of academic dishonesty, then there were subsequently 25% to 50% reporting that they did not involve themselves in academic dishonesty. To determine factors that separated individuals that participated in academic misconduct from those that did not, the researcher turned the focus of the investigation to three reported motivators for academic misconduct: self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977; Evans & Craig, 1990; Finn & Frone, 2004; Murdock et al., 2001), moral reasoning (Bruhn et al., 2002; Gilligan & Attanucci, 1984; Kohlberg & Candee, 1984; Swaner, 2005; Whitbeck, 1996), and organizational socialization (Brown, 2000; Evans & Craig, 1990; Finn & Frone, 2004; McCabe, 2005; Murdock et al.,2001; Sims, 1994; van Gigch, 2006.

Motivators for Academic Misconduct

Motivations for Cheating. Students of all ages reported similar motivating factors for cheating (Cummings et al., 2002; Finn & Frone, 2004). The most common factors given were: failure to adequately study, lack of consequences, dislike for the teacher or institution, belief that the grade is more important than the learning, pressure to achieve, or disbelief in the ability to accomplish the task in any other manner. These documented reasons, which were categorized under the headings of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977; Evans & Craig, 1990; Finn & Frone, 2004; Murdock et al., 2001), moral reasoning (Bruhn et al., 2002; Gilligan & Attanucci, 1984; Kohlberg & Candee, 1984; Swaner, 2005; Whitbeck, 1996), and organizational socialization (Brown, 2000; Evans & Craig, 1990; Finn & Frone, 2004; McCabe 2005; Murdock et al., 2001; Sims, 1994; van Gigch, 2006), were detailed below.

Self-efficacy. One reason people violate policies was based on lack of self-efficacy. Bandura (1977) defined self-efficacy as the belief in one's ability to successfully perform a given task or reach a goal. Studies repeatedly indicated that self-efficacy was a contributing factor to academic dishonesty. In 2001, Murdock, Hale, & Weber reported an inverse relationship between academic self-efficacy and academic misconduct. Self-efficacy was also shown in the Finn & Frone (2004) study to have a significant influence on a student's decision to cheat; 0.15 standard deviation increase in cheating per unit standard deviation decrease in self-efficacy. Yet, even students with high self-efficacy would cheat when there was evidence to suggest that they were not performing well (Finn & Frone, 2004).

Fear of failure (lack of self-efficacy) was noted as a leading reason for academic dishonesty by Evans & Craig (1990) as well as by Schab (1991). Adults often expressed their fear of failure as pressure. At the college level, professors reportedly felt pressure to publish.

At the K-12 teacher level, several studies (Booher-Jennings, 2005; Colgan, 2004; O'Neill, 2003; Son Hing, Bobocel, Zanna, & McBride, 2007; Stefkovich, 2006) identified pressures teachers and administrators felt resulting from NCLB. These educators reported anxiety over the impact high-stakes tests had for them personally and for their students. By federal statute (No Child Left Behind Act of 2001), teachers face contractual nonrenewal if student's test scores continually do not meet the set standards and the school does not make adequate yearly progress. Even without the threat of school sanctions, O'Neill (2003) as well as Booher-Jennings (2005) described that teachers felt responsible for the consequences and negative impact test failure had on their students. Those high-stakes consequences for children included: grade advancement, graduation, and probability of dropping out of school. Students who dropped out of school were at a drastic disadvantage in terms of earning potential; students with a high school diploma earned 19% more per hour than those who did not receive a diploma (O'Neill, 2003).

In conveying possible personal consequences, teachers expressed stress and fear of public embarrassment from having their student's test scores displayed publically at either faculty meetings or in the local newspaper (Colgan, 2004; O'Neill, 2003; Son Hing et al., 2007). Since a NCLB requires school reconstitution as a consequence of failing scores, Stefkovich (2006) listed "wage stability and job security" (p.112) as another contributors to the pressures educators felt as a result of the institution of high-stakes tests. Thus to avoid sanctions or embarrassment, in the current high stakes environment, teachers and administrators were more "likely to alter test results or facilitate student cheating" (Colgan, 2004). Some literature suggests that such decisions may be the result of the individual's

moral reasoning. Thus, it was necessary to examine the relevance of moral-reasoning as a possible contributing factor of academic misconduct.

Moral Reasoning. Another reason for violating policies was diminished moral reasoning. Bruhn et al. (2002) stated that ethics failure, previously termed in this work as academic dishonesty, required the element of intentionality and the decision to actually participate in cheating and it has linked to principled moral reasoning as defined in Lawrence Kohlberg's theory of moral development. Kohlberg's theory outlined a hierarchical progression through three levels and six stages that took one from judgments based on self-interest to those based on mutual respect and human rights (Cummings et al., 2002). Several researchers (McCabe, 2005; Gilligan, 1982; Gilligan & Attanucci, 1984; Whitbeck, 1996) reported that moral reasoning was often contextual or situational, while Swaner (2005) added that moral reasoning was influenced more by emotions than by cognition.

Further review of Kohlberg's work and the variance he reported were shown to be primarily a result of education and age or cognitive maturity. Once past adolescence, education appeared to overtake age as the major influence (Harding, Mayhew, Finelli, & Carpenter, 2007). In this study, we were concerned with educators who were all well past adolescence and had similar education backgrounds, i.e., at least a bachelor's degree. These characteristics would lead one to look deeper into constructs of reasoning or sense-making that might possibly lead one educator to choose to participate in academic misconduct while another educator would not make that same choice. Since moral reasoning has been shown to be greatly influenced by education and age, one would not expect a collection of college educated adults to demonstrate a significant variance in moral reasoning, as defined by Kohlberg. Thus, at an individual level, reported variance could be, as Begley (1996)

suggests, a manifestation of the individual's values. It was also suggested that characteristics such as academic policy and socialization of the individual's organization might contribute to the variance of participation in academic dishonesty.

Organizational Reasons for Academic Misconduct

In addition to the contributing internal or psychological factors (self-efficacy and moral reasoning), the literature also reveled external factors which might contribute to an individual's actions. These external factors included the socialization process (Brown, 2000; Sims, 1994; van Gigch, 2006) of the organization, the policy structure of the system (Bruhn et al., 2002; Cummings et al., 2002; Kelley et al., 2006; McCabe et al.,1999; Vandehey, Diehoff, & LaBeff, 2007), and the relationships (Bruhn et al., 2002; Evans & Craig, 1990; Fine & Frone, 2004; McCabe, 2005; Murdock et al., 2001) between members of the organization. The will be socialization process of the organization will be discussed first

Organizational Socialization. Following the influences of moral reasoning, emotions, and context, the social environment of an organization was reported to have a strong influence on the choices and behaviors of its members (Brown, 2000; Sims, 1994; van Gigch, 2006). In an academic setting, Finn & Frone (2004) reported that students were less likely to cheat when they felt respected by their teacher or connected to the school. Evans & Craig (1990) also reported that students viewed social relationships as a significant factor which influences the propensity to cheat. McCabe (2005) stated that student culture, defined as the views and behaviors of students, had the greatest impact on academic dishonesty. This relationship between organizational culture and behavior was repeated by Bruhn et al. (2002) as well as Murdock et al. (2001).

In the adult arena, according to Trevino, Brown, and Hartman (2003), organizational leaders set the stage for the ethical behavior in organizations. Those leaders most successful in maintaining an ethical environment demonstrated authentic care for their employees (Trevino et al., 2003). John Hoyle, in his 2002 book, *Leadership and the Force of Love,* articulated this concept as love. In the preface, he stated that "love guides the way of organizations" (p.xii). He went on to define love as "unselfish, loyal, and benevolent concern for the good of another" (p.xii). Ethical leaders, titled hopeful leaders by Sergiovanni (2005), showed respect for all employees and maintained positive direct contact with employees. This direct contact has been shown to open lines of communication not only between the leader and employees, but also among employees.

For instance, increased conversation and collaboration in organizations has been shown to reduce alienation (Whitley, 1998). It was also helpful if the leader was a positive role model and effective communicator (Trevino et al., 2003). The communication abilities of the leader was instrumental in determining if the individual was viewed as worthy of being followed. Thus, ethical leaders built trusting organizations. This relational trust can be measured in "terms of teacher attitudes toward other teachers, principals and parents" (Sergiovanni, 2005, p.119).

Another significant contextual factor, reported by students, in the decision to participate in academic dishonest behavior was the perceived severity of penalties (McCabe et al., 1999). McCabe's study also reported cheating was often overlooked or treated lightly. Professors stated that in fact they did often overlooked cheating because they did not want to get tangled in the bureaucratic process of upholding sanctions against students, supported in the literature reported by Vandehey, Diehoff, & LaBeff (2007). As a result of the inaction of

the classroom leader, more students cheated because they felt the behavior was condoned, and students felt without cheating they might lose ground academically. In early studies, cheaters used "neutralizing attitudes to lessen guilt associated with cheating" (Vandehy et al., 2007, p.468). A follow up study a decade later indicated that the percentage of reported cheating had not increased significantly but the use of neutralization by both cheaters and non-cheaters had decreased. Vandehy et al. (2007) took this data to indicate that cheating had become more normative and was no longer in need of justification. Justification implied the presence of some type of understood guideline. Guidelines or procedures were the written forms of expectations that are in place to guide behavior. The literature addressed guidelines in a variety of ways.

Policy Structure

First, to improve ethical behavior, guidelines were essential. These guidelines were labeled as policies, standards or codes. Policies and codes (Cummings et al., 2002), were stipulations of professionals and were intended to direct the operations of organizations. However, codes simply written on paper did not prevent all breaches (McCabe et al., 1999) as indicated not only by current academic dishonesty but also by published breaches in other areas. Several studies of college campuses indicated that a clearly written policy or code of conduct was necessary as a guide. Yet, they went on to state that it was the actions of the organization which increased the likelihood of organizational members following the code and thus preventing ethical failure. (Bruhn et al., 2002; Kelley et al., 2006; McCabe, 2005). It was noted that too often, new members of an organization were expected to pick up on the norms of the culture through "osmosis-like diffusion" (Hamilton, 2006, p. 16). To ensure

acculturation, organizations must be able to articulate their norms (Norberg, 2003; Kelley et al., 2006; Valli & Buese, 2007). Organizational action through mentoring and socialization could clarify policy interpretations. (Davis et al., 1992; Meyer et al., 2004; Sims, 1994).

"It is necessary to remember that ethics failure may not always be the result of an individual's quest for personal gain. Rather, unethical behavior may have resulted from what the administrator (or faculty) viewed as institutionally necessary decisions or interpretations of policy" (Whisnant, 1988, p. 244). In the K-12 public school arena, of interest to this study, there were various contradictions that could cloud actions. Stipulations of NCLB left teachers and schools forced to make decisions between taking actions that were in the best interest of individual students or in the best interest of the organization. Generally, these decisions revolved around utilization of schools' limited resources in such a way that may have reduced the likelihood of a given group of students receiving instruction in order to focus the resources on students that would most benefit the school as a whole. Booher-Jennings (2005) called this process "academic triage" (p.321).

There were also instances where polices appeared to contradicted each other. At the federal level, Faircloth (2004) expressed concerns of educators who felt that standards basis of No Child Left Behind was in conflict with the individuality basis of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA). In the state of Texas, policy EIA (Legal) stated that grades were to be based on mastery of the course content and students would receive credit if they demonstrated mastery at the 70% level. However, from the same state, policy FEC (Legal) stated that students would not receive credit if they were absent for more than 10% of the class meetings. In other words, regardless of academic mastery, a non-academic behavior could override an academic accomplishment. When such contradictory conditions exist,

organizations and individuals were left to choose one situation over another. If the organization and the individual did not make congruent decisions, conflict arose.

To this point, the literature has drawn our attention to a possible path for exploration. From the work of Getzels and Guba (1957), it appeared that there were two major dimensions, idiographic and nomothetic, intertwined and influencing the decisions of professionals, in this situation, teachers. Self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977; Finn & Frone, 2004) and moral reasoning (Kohlberg & Candee, 1984) were suggested as useful factors to support the idiographic or personal dimension. The researcher first believed that both self-efficacy and moral reasoning would play a significant role, but after further examination, moral reasoning was removed from the model. The nomothetic, organizational, dimension was further examined through the socialization process (Brown, 2000; Sims, 1994; van Gigch, 2006) of the organization, the policy structure of the system (Bruhn et al., 2002; Cummings et al., 2002; Kelley et al., 2006; McCabe et al.,1999; Vandehey et al., 2007), and the relationships (Bruhn et al., 2002; Evans & Craig, 1990; Fine & Frone, 2004; McCabe, 2005; Murdock et al., 2001) between members of the organization. While the referenced studies supplied need background, they did not thoroughly explain the need disposition mentioned by Getzels' & Guba's (1957) which is believed to influence the conflict one experiences when make a decision to follow or violate a policy. It then became the search for and the understandings of these underpinnings of conflict, as related to academic misconduct, that drove this study.

Conflict - An Introduction to Social Adaptation Theory

Norberg (2003) suggested when conflict arises between the ethical frame and values supported by school leadership and those held by an individual employee, academic misconduct may increase. This rationale for increased misconduct was echoed in the works of Brown (2000), van Gigch (2006), and Sims (1994). However, Begley (1996) did not include ethical frames when he states that it is a manifestation of values which determined if educators would participate in academic dishonesty.

In each incident of academic dishonesty, clear conflict appeared to arise between the desires of the organization as defined by policy and the actions of the individual. In the social system model of Getzels and Guba (1957) a conflict was identified having two divisions: nomothetic and idiographic. The nomothetic or normative dimension was comprised of three elements: institution, role of the individual within the organization, and the role expectation. The idiographic or personal dimension was composed of the individual, personality, and need-dispositions. The observed behavior, academic misconduct in this case, was a function of the role (R) and personality (P): $B=f(RxP)$ (Getzels & Guba, 1957). This simplistic formula helped one to see that academic misconduct (the behavior) was a function of two components, role and personality. However, it did little to clarify the complexities associated with these two factors in regards to exploring what motivates individuals to violate academic policies. Thus, the literature search turned to explore theory that could more clearly explain these components of conflict and human interaction. One such theory was social adaptation theory.

Social Adaptation Theory

To more fully understand academic dishonest, the review turned to social adaptation theory because it has been shown through business research to explain individual's decisions. Social adaptation theory is composed of three interdependent components: values, ethical frames and organizational socialization. While each component will be reviewed in the following pages, this review will begin with a brief summary of social adaption theory and its history.

Over a century ago, adaptation emerged as a guiding principle in both physical and social sciences. In much the same manner as Darwin used adaptation as a cornerstone in his explanation of biological evolution (Darwin, 1909), social evolution was also explained using adaptation. Bristol (1915), outlined the theory of social adaptation from a survey of written social philosophies. He provided a general definition of the theory as the process social units used to adapt to "their ever changing physical and spiritual environments" (Bristol, 1915, p. 327). Thus, for this study, social adaption theory provides insight into the psychological motivation to commit acts of academic misconduct (Bristol, 1915). However, lacking in this general explanation were testable factors and forces of the social adaptation process.

Possible testable factors for this study emerged from the work of Lynn Kahle (1983). Through his work in the business field, Kahle (1983) identified the driving forces of conflict in adaptation theory. While adaptation was defined as a dynamic change process involving both the environment and the individual, Kahle limited the focus to "societal, role and psychological adaptation" (p. 49). In his view, individuals developed adaptive strategies to cope with their social environment and to increase their adaptive worth. The action or

behavior selected in any given situation was guided by the individuals' value system and ethics framework. Although various philosophers have tried to make given values prescriptive, the position documented in Kahle's (1983) book, and supported by Seeger, Sellnow, and Ulmer (2003), was that any given value can be prescriptive only in contextual terms. He stated, "Values are cognitive constructions emerging from epistemological and ontological premises implicit in the interactions of the person in his/her environment" (Kahle, 1983, p. xvii). Under this guiding factor, a given value might be good for adaption to work but not for adaptation to family life. He stated that to be prescriptive about a value, "one has to specify which of the many social environments in which men and women live is the focus of inquiry" (Kahle, 1983, p. xvi). Thus, values were shaped and reshaped from internal and external drives (Casmir, 1997). Bausch (2008) concurred with the idea of man in constant flux with the environment and self to establish patterns of behavior. He aligned this idea to "Aristotle's eudaemon" (p.273), man's constant search for happiness.

McIntyre-Mills (2008) used the term "ethical literacy" to describe the interaction between self and the environment. Based on the work of Frankl, she contends people make their own meanings based on will, environment, and desire. Decisions were made not by principles alone, but also with consideration for consequences. McIntyre-Mills (2008) suggests as well that when conflict arises between policy and action, managers miss opportunities for complete understanding when focusing entirely on task and process questions instead of "why questions, that gets to the heart of issues" (McIntyre-Mills, 2008, p. 196). Moreover, she stresses the need for a meta-cognitive focus. Values could "filter the way we see the world" (McIntrye-Mills, 2008, p. 206) "decisions are made not simply on the basis of pre-defined principles, but within the specific contexts in which the ethical dilemmas

emerge and must be resolved" (McIntrye-Mills, 2008, p. 304). With the suggestion by Begley (2001) that values determine action, the review searched deeper for possible implications on academic misconduct as an independent factor and as an interdependent factor of social adaptation theory. This knowledge was then used to develop a survey instrument that sought to determine percussive actions to academic misconduct (cheating).

Values

As an independent factor to influence academic misconduct, Rokeach (1973) states the "concept of values, more than any other, is the core concept across all the social science" (p.ix). He went on to say that values were the "main independent variable in the study of…behavior" (p.ix). As such, a "value is an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or convergent mode of conduct or end-state of existence" (p. 5). Values were labeled as either instrumental, i.e., care for the means, or terminal, i.e., care for the ends. Each of these two categories was subdivided: terminal into personal or social and instrumental into moral or competence. It was the interplay, or more specifically the hierarchical arrangement, of these types of values that determined one's choices and social behavior (Feather, 1975; Homer & Kahle, 1988; Rokeach, 1973; Rosenberg, 1957).

Value Measurement. To test values, Rokeach developed a values survey. The instrument presented respondents with two lists, one list consisting of 18 terminal values arranged alphabetically and another list of 18 instrumental values arranged alphabetically. The respondent was instructed to "arrange them in order of importance to YOU as guiding principles in YOUR life" (Rokeach, 1973, p.27).

In an effort to streamline Rokeach's Value Survey (RVS), Kahle, Beatty, & Homer (1986) developed the List of Values (LOV) test. The LOV was similar to the RVS yet it used a smaller number (8) of values. In correlation studies, the LOV was reported to perform at test-retest reliability of 0.73 to the RVS.

The eight values of the LOV were: being well-respected, fun-enjoyment-excitement, security, self-fulfillment, self-respect, sense of accomplishment, sense of belonging, and warm relationships with others. Value selection illuminated one's acquisition of adaptation strategies. Kahle's study indicated that "people seem to select specific values based on previous fulfillment of that value or based on deficit need" (Kahle, 1983. P. 273). Using respect as an example, those selecting the value of being well respected probably do not feel respected. To satisfy this deficit need, the individual will attempt to place themselves in situations that render respect. In contrast, an individual that has experienced respect from others would be move to a fulfillment manifestation of a respect and select a value such as self-respect. In this manner, those seeking to obtain more successful adaptation strategies would select deficit need values while those that have had a successful adaptation to life would select fulfillment values. In addition to fulfillment, the values also correlated to one's locus of control. According to the study, deficit need values indicated an external locus of control and fulfillment associated with an internal locus of control. From this vantage point, one would expect teachers with deficit needs values to be more likely to violate academic policies. So the reviewed searched the influences attributed to occupations.

Values and Occupations. Feather and Collins, reported in Feather (1975), utilizing Rokeach Value Survey to compare business students with teacher education students, found that business students placed high rankings on "comfortable life, social recognition and being

ambitious" while education students placed a high emphasis on "a world at peace, mature love, true friendship and being honest and loving" (p. 53). Feather concluded students in teacher education valued moral and social interactions and relationships with people while business students placed a higher value on receiving materialistic rewards and admiration from others. Even with similar values, Begley (1996) suggested an educator might hold core values that were incompatible with the system. However, values have been shown to guide the selection of occupations. Rosenberg (1957) state that not only do our values guide our occupational choice, but once that choice is made, it may influence our values. Thus, educators might begin with a similar set of values that would become more common over time (Schwartz, 1992). Rosenberg (1957) determined the relationship between occupations and values by rank ordering weighted average scores on his values survey. His survey included 18 occupational fields. Rosenberg suggested that individuals that chose teaching as an occupation tended to be helpful, compliant, people-oriented, and have a high faith in people. These same individuals were found to obtain greater rewards from the work itself than from external compensation and to choose intrinsic rewards over extrinsic rewards. This study will investigate if these suggested outcomes hold true with the participating teachers.

Values and Action. Since values were indicated as the "criteria for judgments, preferences, and choice" (Homer & Kahle, 1988), understanding the preferential values of a person should create an alignment of action. With the strong case for educators having very similar values (Rosenberg, 1957; Schwartz, 1992) and for values guiding behaviors (Dose, 1997; Feather, 1975; Homer & Kahle, 1988; Rokeach, 1973); what determines if one educator will succumb to ethics failure while another will not?

If educators should have a common set of values and values guided action, what causes a group of similarly educated adults to act in divergent manners? Homer & Kahle (1988) suggest that the distinction may be due to research design. They stated, "To date, most empirical research has presented correlation evidence as support for the relationship between values and attitudes or behavioral outcomes" (p. 639). They further state, "The lack of causal analysis was probably more a function of research design and statistical limitations than a function of the research's theoretical beliefs" (Homer & Kahle, 1988, p.639). Feather (1975, p.16) stated, "Concepts may therefore differ structurally between individuals yet have the same verbal labels attached to them. For example, two people might each place a very high value on freedom but on close inspection it might become apparent their concepts of freedom are quite different…Such differences between individuals in the meaning of the general concepts that are being valued are likely to have implications for thought and action." He continued, "One can conceive of a value as an abstract structure involving an associative network which may take different forms for different individuals" (p. 16). Hodgkinson, reported by Begley (1996), identified type 1 values that were grounded in principle and take the form of ethical codes (p. 408) or frames.

This additional suggestion moved the review to examine possible implications and connects provided by ethical frames. As the second component of social adaptation theory, ethical frames provided the path to the action dictated by an individual's values.

Ethical Frames

Another possible component of action (Figure 2.1) for this study, and a construct of social adaptation theory, is one's ethical frame. Ethical frames have been defined as an

individual's world view (van Gigch, 2003) or by Lincoln and Guba (1985, p.15) as "a distillation of what we think about the world (but cannot prove)." Lincoln & Guba (1985) further stated "As we think, so do we act" (p.15). Therefore, any decision would be bound by the amount and type of information considered (Sims, 1994). As such, action would be influenced by the individual's ethical paradigm or epistemological inquiring system (van Gigch, 2003). Perhaps ethical frames can supply the missing information when studying the relationships of values and behaviors. Perhaps this component is the "associative network" of Feather (1975) or the "ethical code" of Hodgkinson (Begley, 1996). Following this course of information, it would follow that before one takes action, one must frame the problem, gather information and decide upon a course of action. Thus, a given epistemological lens theoretically guides a teacher's course of action when interacting with academic polices. In the educational setting, one's ethical frame would encourage the type of information regarding the individual student, the relationship between student and teacher, and home environment. The literature provides a variety of frames such as Utilitarianism (Sims, 1994; Tenbrunsel & Messick, 1999), Aristotialian (Brooks & Normore, 2005), Judeo-Christian (Casmir, 1997), organizational legitimacy, and organizational responsiveness (Seeger et al., 2003), and the ethic of community (Furman, 2003) that have been used to evaluate ethical decisions; however, for this study the frames were limited to those identified and discussed by Shapiro & Stefkovich (2005) and Stefkovich (2006). The four ethical frames, justice, care, critique, and professionalism, are reviewed below. Each is connected to the current study by their ability to enlighten educational situations.

Ethic of Justice. The first and most traditional frame listed by Stefkovich (2006) was the ethic of justice. Its Western origins relate back to the works of Aristotle and Plato

(Shapiro & Gross, 2008; Stefkovich, 2006). The application of laws and rules in a consistent or fair manner became the major focus of this paradigm. However, the underwritten statement was concern with fair and just application to traditional laws or rules (Blumenfeld-Jones, 2004; Faircloth, 2004; Furman, 2003). While ethical decisions generally involved a conflict, the rationalization for solving the issue fell along a line of thought that could be considered absolute and literal in relationship to the law. Two conflicting thoughts with respect to fairness were considered. One looked at society as a whole and the other looked at the individual (Begley, 2006). The first, utilitarianism (Locke, 1947) is a philosophical doctrine that promotes individuals to make decisions that will maximize goodness or pleasure and minimize evil or pain. As such, utilitarianism or maximization directed one to make ethical decisions that would benefit the most people (Mill, 1957; Stefkovich, 2006). With utilitarianisms "the fundamental tension of an ethic of justice perspective rests between the maximization of benefits for all and respect for individual rights" (Faircloth, 2004, p. 5). Libertarianism is the second sub-principle of the ethic of justice. The principle of libertarianism speaks to the quality among all individuals. It was not interested in the results of the policy but rather the procedures that are used to arrange and enforce the policies to ensure everyone is treated equally under the policy (Locke, 1960). Some believed that educational administrators are more apt to rely on the ethic of justice because of its top down orientation, emphasis on universal principles, and maintenance of the status quo (Enomoto, 1997).

This paradigm was shown to link back to the previously reviewed concept of moral reasoning. Noddings states Kohlberg's Theory of Moral Reasoning was based on the ethic of justice, a male dominate perspective (Noddings, 1984). It was articulated that this paradigm

was universal; assuming that the way men saw the world was the norm (Enomoto, 1997). It was also through this paradigm that Kohlberg developed his test of moral judgment. Thus, when one answered questions from Kohlberg's Moral Judgment Interview using a different paradigm (Gilligan & Attanucci, 1984), the resulting stage of reasoning was diminished. Gilligan (1982), a student of Kohlberg, took up the gender issue and put forth a different paradigm that was less male centered. This new paradigm evolved into the ethic of care.

Ethic of Care. Carol Gilligan began the ethic of care by challenging Kohlberg's six stages of moral development which placed justice at the top of the hierarchy (Enomoto, 1997). Through her difference theory, Gilligan (1982) questioned if men and women utilized the same process for making ethical decisions. She noted four major limitations of the ethic of justice: (a) Western moral philosophy was the product of males; (b) The subjects of empirical research had been mostly male; (c) Descriptions of moral development were often linear and structural, with recent examples that include Piaget's and Kohlberg's theories of moral development through moral stages; (d) Central concepts of morality were "the concept of justice inherent in the moral stages" (Spader, 2002, 66-67)

Gilligan (1982) argued that this choice restricted the view or "voice" of all humanity and therefore was not universal as Kohlberg claimed. She believed women observed and made sense of the world differently than men. Thus, she saw her ethic of care as a gender construct (Enomoto, 1997; Noddings, 1984). In the late 1970's, Nel Noddings extended the development of the ethic of care to describe the relationship as the "one caring" and the "cared for" (Blumenfeld-Jones, 2004; Noddings, 1984). From Noddings' (1984) perspective, less emphasis should be given to rules and a "prior determinations of rules…of what is fair and equitable" rather "conditions that is viewed thought the eyes of the one-caring and the

cared-for" (p.13). In this manner, the ethic of care required absolute regard for the dignity and intrinsic value of each person and was concerned far less with fairness than with the caring and development of individuals as unique persons (Faircloth, 2004; Furman, G., 2003; Held, 2006). In seeking to promote the well being of others, care additionally meant being "oriented toward ethics grounded in empathy rather than dispassionate ethical principles" (McCray & Beachum, 2006, p.5). In a similar vein, Torres (2004, p. 252) suggests "Caring reflects a profound responsibility to ensure that needs are met with the purpose of helping the individual realize and achieve self-liberation." Sergiovanni (2005) stated the principles of care established both respect and personal regard when they "acknowledge the vulnerabilities of others, actively listen to their concerns, and eschew arbitrary actions" (p.120). Through these actions, others could be liberated from their state of need or alienation. Through emphasis on relationships, collaboration and sense of belonging, the welfare of individuals was promoted (Begley, 2006; Furman, 2003; Shapiro & Gross, 2008).

By using strictly female subjects, Gillian (1982) introduced a new set of moral concepts that challenged the traditional ones of justice, rights, autonomy and social contract. Gilligan's "difference theory introduced concepts of care, needs, interdependence and social trust as the glue that holds society together" (Spader, 2002, p. 667). Even though the work of Gilligan and Noddings began as a gender specific work, it later included men. A subsequent meta-analysis showed rare or small differences between moral reasoning for men and women (Gilligan & Attanucci, 1984; Spader, 2002).

Ethic of Critique. A third paradigm mentioned by Stefkovich (2006) is the ethic of critique which is based on critical theory. Like the ethic of justice, the ethic of critique was concerned with fairness; however, the ethic of critique more closely examines fairness for

whom? Justice focuses on consistent and fair application of traditional rules. According to the ethic of critique, traditional rules are rules established by the ruling class composed of privileged, European American male. In a society of increasing diversity, it was believed that often the traditional rules were in and of themselves unfair to all parties. Giroux, Shapiro and Purpel (as cited in Furman, 2003) referred to this stance as a conscientious effort to move "toward a social discourse that states it is only through the voices of the marginalized can be heard the inequities of the system" (Furman, 2003, p. 3). The inclusion and response to the diverse voices needed to be addressed and consistently practiced to "ensure equity and equal opportunity" (Normore, 2004, p. 5) or per Shapiro & Gross (2008), to meet the "concept of democracy" (p. 6). The crux of this paradigm was not to simply uncover injustices, but to take action and correct the injustice or oppression (Freire, 1970; Furman, 2003; McCray & Beachum, 2006), thus, this paradigm was to be guided by social justice.

Due to the growing diversity of school populations, increasing documentation of academic achievement and economic gaps between mainstream and children of color, increasing injustices that arise from the current policy environment of high-stakes assessments and accountability (Furman, 2003), social justice has acquired a new intensity and urgency in education (McDonald, 2007). Starratt (1991) indicated that society has always consisted of different groups struggling for a form of control, and philosophers since the Frankfurt School have been interested in examining social arrangements through critical theory. Critical theory

> questioned the framework of the way we organize our lives or the way our lives were organized for us. The point of critical stance was to uncover which

> group had the advantage over the others, how things got to be the way they were, and to expose how situations were studied and language disused so as to maintain the legitimacy of social arrangements (Starratt, 1991, p.189).

To this end, more and more teacher education programs have begun emphasizing social justice as a basis and central concern of teacher education programs (McDonald, 2007)

Ethic of Profession. The fourth paradigm, the ethic of profession, was conceived by Shapiro and Stefkovich as a better answer to Starratt's multidimensional ethical framework that blended the "frames of justice, care and critique" (Stefkovich, 2006). While an ethic of profession could be described for any profession that utilizes a professional code of conduct, the focus of Shapiro and Stefkovich (2005) was on educational leadership. They acknowledge that a school leader who respond ethically struggle with the concepts of justice, care, and critique and grapples with the tensions between the ethical codes of the profession and judgments and actions of the individual. In the end, the ethical school leader places the best interest of his or her students at the center of all decisions, (Faircloth, 2004; Stefkovich, 2006). Stefkovich (2006) warns that actions taken when addressing the best interest of the individual student must be done without causing harm to the group. She also reminds the reader that one must ensure that decisions are truly in the best interest of the child, not a reflection of the adult's "self-interests" (p. 21).

Shapiro and Stefkovich (2005) espouse the application of a multi-ethical analytical approach to the interpretations of ethical dilemmas. The "key ethical orientations suggested by these scholars include the ethic of justice, the ethic of critique, the ethic of care and a hybrid multi-dimensional model, the ethic of profession" (Begley, 2006, p.582). They (Shapiro & Stefkovich , 2005), acknowledge individuals vary in their preferred ethical

postures but, to best meet the needs of all students, encourage administrators to analyze daily situations from a multi-ethical perspective. Though the research pair gave no set order to the application of the three ethical frames, and agreed that there should not be a rigid application, Begley suggests a sequence for the

> appropriate application of these classic western ethical lenses in a school situation to be ethic of critique (ensure understanding of all perspectives applicable to the situation—especially those of minorities and individuals otherwise with voice or representation—to do otherwise is to risk gravitation to the preferred cultural orientation of the leader or mainstream orientations of a given cultural group), followed by the ethic of care (keep focus on people rather than on organizations or policies) and then the ethic of justice (decide on the actual action that will maximize benefits for all while respecting the rights of the individual) (Begley, 2006, p.583).

Moreover, encourages administrators to move beyond the use of a single ethical frame as a "moral rubric" (Begley, 2006, p.583) and to consciously adopt a multi-ethical perspective as a guide for problem solving in the educational arena. See Table 2.1 for a summary of the four frames presented.

Table 2.1
Paradigm Summary

	Ethic of Justice	Ethic of Care	Ethic of Critique	Ethic of Profession
Guiding question	Is it fair, equal and just?	Who will benefit from what I decide? Who will be hurt by my actions? What are the long term effects of a decision I make today? And if I am helped by someone, what should I do in the future about giving back to this individual or society in general?	Who makes the laws? Who benefits from the law, rule, or policy? Who has the power? Who are the silenced parties? (Shapiro & Stefkovich, 2005) Who Defines; who controls, and who is benefiting by these arrangements? (McCray & Beachum, 2006, p.2)	What would the profession expect me to do? What does the community expect me to do? What should I do based on the best interests of the students, who may be diverse in their composition and needs? (Shaprio & Stefkovich, 2005, p. 26)
Guiding concept	Laws	Relationships	Social Justice	Professional code
Central focus	Society	Individual	Oppressed	Child
Guiding influence	Socrates/Kant	Noddings/Gillian	Frankfort School/ Goodlad	Stefkovich/Shapiro
	Due Process	Quality of Life	Social Justice	Best Interest of Student
	Equal Access	Human Potential	Actions to Balance	Code Driven
	Traditional	Human Dignity	Civil Rights	Cause no Harm

Summary

This review of literature sought to provide information on a connection between public K-12 education teachers and academic dishonesty against the backdrop of high-stakes accountability. While studies that exactly parallel this inquiry were not found, background and support information was readily available. The literature revealed academic misconduct was an age-old problem (Davis et al., 1992; Ferrell & Daniel, 1995; Whitely, 1998). It highlighted participation in academic misconduct by students (Ferrell & Daniel, 1995; Cummings et al., 2002) and professors (Bruhn et al., 2002; Cummings et al., 2002; Hamilton,

2006). Even though there appears to be a void in the empirical literature linking K-12 teachers to academic dishonesty, the literature (Davy et al., 2007; Lovett-Hopper et al., 2007) suggests that there is a high probability that K-12 teachers engage in academic misconduct.

Four motivating factors for academic dishonesty were extracted from the literature for further research: self efficacy (Evans & Craig, 1990; Finn & Frone, 2004; Murdock et al., 2001; Schab, 1991), values (Begley, 1996; Rokeach, 1973), ethical frames (Sims, 1994; van Gigch, 2003), and organizational socialization (Bruhn et al., 2002; Kelley et al., 2006; McCabe, 2005). These factors appear to significantly guide the action of individuals and thus the individual's decision to violate an academic policy. Two of the factors, self-efficacy (Finn & Frone, 2004; Murdock et al., 2001) and organizational socialization (Brown, 2000; Sims, 1994; van Gigch, 2006), had been evaluated in relation to their interplay with acts of academic dishonesty and shown to be contributors to actions of ethical failure. The other two factors, values and ethical frames, had been evaluated and disclosed as contributors to actions or behaviors in marketing research (Homer & Kahle, 1988; Kahle, 1983) but not in the context of education.

Based on the information from the literature review, the current investigation will seek to achieve four goals. First, the study will strive to fill the identified voids in the literature. Second, it will seek to determine if teacher actions parallel those of students. Third, the inquiry will also seek to inform the literature by investigating the identified components of action (Figure 2.1) to determine if and how the interaction of self-efficacy, organizational socialization, values, and ethical frames affect educators dealing with academic policies in an age of high-stakes accountability. Finally, the study will strive to answer if each of the identified factors works independently or if they are interdependent as

suggested by Kahle's social adaptation theory (Kahle, 1983). Without empirical data, it was postulated that in an environment of high-stakes accountability, each factor would contribute equally (Figure 2.2) to a teacher's action when interacting with academic policies.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between organizational socialization, values, ethical frames, and Kahle's social adaptation theory and teacher's self-reported behavior in respect to academic misconduct.

As outlined in Chapter II, the literature is filled with data illuminating the context and theoretical frames of this study; however, the literature did not produce a direct connection of those frames to teachers and their actions. This inquiry used descriptive and inferential statistical analysis (Agresti, 2007) to: (a) build direct connections to teachers by answering research questions that paralleled the literature review, and (b) to ascertain if teacher behavior was predictable.

This chapter will outline the design of the study. It will provide the reader with the methods of data collection, including the development of the survey instruments, and the data sources. The chapter will also provide an explanation of how logistic regression will be used for the statistical analysis to accomplish the investigation by answering the following research questions through the listed sub-questions.

Research Questions

Q1: Is there evidence to suggest that teachers engage in academic misconduct?

Question 1.1: Do teachers self-report violations of academic policies?

Question 1.2: Do more teachers report academic dishonesty when situations are presented in a scenario than when situations are asked directly?

Question 1.3: Do more teachers report violating grading policies and testing policies?

Question 1.4: Does the type of preparation and teaching assignment influence academic misconduct?

Question 1.5: Is there a relationship between age, ethnicity or experience on academic misconduct?

Q2: Is there evidence to suggest a relationship between self-efficacy and the likelihood that teachers will engage in academic misconduct?

Question 2.1: Do all surveyed teachers believe that they can teach all children?

Question 2.2: Do all surveyed teachers believe that they can teach all children to mastery?

Question 2.3: Is there a significant difference in the number of teachers who believe they can teach all children and the number who believe they can teach all children to mastery?

Question 2.4: Is there a relationship between self-efficacy and a teacher's choice to violate high-stakes grading policy?

Question 2.5: Is there a relationship between self-efficacy and a teacher's choice to violate high-stakes testing policy?

Question 2.6: Is there a relationship between self-efficacy and teaching assignment?

Q3: Is there evidence to suggest a relationship between organizational socialization and the likelihood that teachers will engage in academic misconduct?

Question 3.1: Is there a relationship between organizational socialization and a teacher's choice to violate grading policy?

Question 3.2: Is there a relationship between organizational socialization and a teacher's choice to violate high-stakes testing policies?

Q4: Is there evidence to suggest a relationship between values and the likelihood that teachers will engage

Question 4.1: Do teachers have similar values?

Question 4.2: Do teachers' values become more similar over time?

Question 4.3: Is there a relationship between age, ethnicity, experience and value types?

Question 4.4: Is there a relationship between self-efficacy and types of values?

Question 4.5: Is there a relationship between types of values and academic misconduct?

Question 4.5a: Is there a relationship between types of values and academic misconduct regarding grading policies?

Question 4.5b: Is there a relationship between types of values and academic misconduct regarding testing policies?

Q5: Is there evidence to suggest a relationship between ethical frames and the likelihood that teachers will engage in academic misconduct?

Question 5.1: Is there a relationship between age, ethnicity, experience, and ethical frames?

Question 5.2: Is there a relationship between violating grading policy and ethical frames?

Question 5.3: Is there a relationship between violating high-stakes testing policy and ethical frames?

Question 5.4: Is there a relationship between values and ethical frames?

Question 5.5: Is there a relationship between self-efficacy and ethical paradigm?

Q6: Is there evidence to suggest that a relationship between social adaptation theory and the likelihood that teachers will engage in academic misconduct?

Question 6.1: Is there a relationship between types of values, ethical frames and academic misconduct?

Design

As outlined by Creswell (2003), a research study must create a match between the "problem and the approach" (p.21). Since this study attempted to extend previous research involving academic misconduct and to validate Kahle's social adaptation theory by "identifying factors that influence outcome" (Creswell, 2003, p. 21), it required a quantitative design. The study also sought to extend the work of Feather (1975), Rokeach (1973), and Kahle (1983) from a business setting to an educational context by utilizing the ethical frames of Stefkovich (2006). The study was grounded in a postpositive perspective, sometimes called the "scientific method" (Creswell, 2003, p. 7), as it sought to identify the determinants

that influence teachers as they interact with academic policies. To obtain the necessary numeric measures, a survey instrument was needed to provide data for both descriptive and inferential questions. Due to the possibly sensitive or embarrassing nature of a selection of these questions, a self-administered survey was chosen (Fowler, 1993).

Data Collection

Instrument. As an exploratory quantitative study, no single instrument was located that addressed the parameters or the context of this inquiry. Therefore, an exploratory survey instrument was developed, guided by the Assessment of Academic Misconduct (Ferrell & Daniel, 1995), Attitude Toward Cheating Scale (Roig & Ballew, 1994), Rokeach's Value Survey (Rokeach, 1973) and Homer and Kahle's (1988) List of Values Test. Reviewed questions were modified to address feelings of appreciation for work, connections to school, personal values, knowledge of grading policies and procedures, and specific ties to ethical frames regarding academic dishonesty. Information on individual teacher demographic data such as age, years of experience, ethnicity, years of service at the current campus, path to certification, grade level taught, and subject(s) taught were collected.

The survey design was based upon the principles for self-administered questionnaires as outlined by Creswell (2003) and Fowler (1993). Its development went through several steps, beginning with a focus group.

Focus Group. A focus group of 30 master teachers and 15 doctoral students was utilized to develop realistic grading and testing situations for the survey. The group was asked to list all the violations of grading or testing policies that they had witnessed. The reported violations were then consolidated into a single list, omitting redundant violations. A

subset of the teachers was asked to review a list of common grading or testing situations for authenticity and to provide any other situations that were not addressed on the list. From the gathered input, a preliminary instrument was developed.

The preliminary instrument was given to each member of the focus group. Each member completed the document anonymously. The instrument asked respondents to identify an action, by answering yes or no, in relation to a grading or testing policy and to provide a reason for the action. Next, the respondents were asked to identify a category, unlabeled ethical paradigm, which best described the given answers. Respondents were later interviewed to determine if the various components of the instrument were easily understood. While respondents indicated that they experienced no difficulties in identifying an action or reason, they did indicate that it was difficult and somewhat confusing to connect one of the categories. Teachers seemed to express greater difficulty than the doctoral students.

From the input of the focus group, a second preliminary survey instrument was developed. After field testing, the focus group suggested the instrument was too complex and was overwhelming. It was also noted that the response time exceeded the target limit of 15 minutes. The information from the field testing was used to simplify the instrument. The resultant survey was reviewed for construct and content validity by Dr. Jacqueline Stefkovich, Professor of School Law and Head of the Department of Education Policy Studies at The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA, and by Dr. Mario Torres, Assistant Professor in the Department of Human Resources and Education Administration at Texas A&M University, College Station, TX. Reliability was established using a test-retest method. A convenience sample of 30 teachers was asked on two occasions to complete the survey. The survey was administered through a third party on-line survey company, to allow

anonymous responses. Respondents were asked to provide a self-selected pseudonym for identification purposes. They were also given an opportunity to contact the researcher to provide comments regarding the structure and content of the survey. Using SPSS, reliability of the test-retest data was calculated at a Cronbach's α of 0.85.

Utilizing the field test data and information from the literature review, the final instrument (Appendix A) was composed of eight sections: campus identification, general information, self-efficacy, policy knowledge, social atmosphere, value system, policy interaction, and ethical frames. Each section is described below.

Campus Identification. Respondents were simply asked to select the radio button that corresponded to their assigned campus.

General Information. This section asked participants for demographic information such as age, length of employment, and education level. These factors were identified by Rokeach (1973) and Feather (1975) to influence values and ethics. Data that involved time, i.e., age, length of employment, was gathered in a continuous manner. Where necessary to meet the assumptions of nonparametric tests, the continuous data were transformed into categorical data for analysis purposes. Using suggestions from Fowler (1993), questions were written with adequate wording to ensure that a complete and clear question was presented to the respondent. Terms that could possibly have multiple meanings were clearly defined. To provide limited variety (Fowler, 1993), a mix of open and closed questions was included.

Policy Knowledge. To establish a baseline, participants were asked to identify, in dichotomous fashion, their familiarity with grading and testing policies at the campus, district and state level. Participants were also asked to indicate if identified policies were reviewed on a continuous basis by their campus and academic team. Since actions involving polices

were the dependent variables in the main research questions, it was imperative that respondents acknowledge complete understanding of the policies. Lack of knowledge could skew, confound, or invalidate the results of the study. Thus, any respondent that indicated a lack of knowledge of the basic policies was removed from the analysis.

Social Atmosphere. Several studies (Brown, 2000; Bruhn et al.; 2002; McCabe, 2005; Murdock et al., 2001 Sims, 1994; Trevino et al., 2003; van Gigch, 2006) reported that the social environment of an organization and the interactions of its members had a strong influence on the choices and behaviors of individuals. Thus, the questions in this section asked participants about their interactions with their campus, team, and principal.

Value System. Rokeach (1973) states that one's value system, defined as a hierarchal rating of values, guides behavior. In his research, Rokeach developed his Value Survey (RVS) which asked participants to rank 16 terminal and 16 instrumental values. In 1988 Homer and Kahle developed the List of Values (LOV) instrument. This list, composed of 8 values, was easier for respondents and was shown to have a 0.72 correlation to Rokeach's RVS. Further support for the LOV over the RVS was presented in the organizational structure study by Crosby, Bitner, & Gill (1990). The study indicated the reduction in value choices from 36 to 9 would "perhaps lead to a more parsimonious and generalizable models" (p.124). Thus, the researcher chose to use the LOV. In addition to the positive qualities indicated by Crosby et al. (1990), the LOV allowed the overall instrument to remain within the length parameters suggested by Fowler (1993).

Policy Interaction. This section was developed to investigate participants' response to common grading situations void context. The questions were chosen based on input from a focus group composed of 30 master teachers and 15 doctoral students. An interaction score

was determined by assigning one point for each time a teacher indicated that his/her action would violate the district's or state's policy. On a second coding, teachers were categorically coded as a violator if a violation was indicated on any question.

Ethical Frames. The final section of the survey instrument was designed to investigate participants' response to common situations when placed in an educational context or scenario, and to identify the reason or framework that guided the response. As before, an interaction score was determined by assigning one point for each time a teacher indicated that her/his action would violate the district's or state's policy. On a second coding, teachers were categorically coded as a violator if a violation was indicated on any question. Dominant ethical paradigm was coded to represent the paradigm that the respondent chose three or more times. If a respondent chose profession twice and another paradigm twice, the paradigm other than profession was coded as dominant. If a dominant paradigm could not be chosen in either of the previous two methods, a code of *none* was used.

Data Source

In the literature review, it was noted (Storm & Storm, 2007) that several states had such concern that academic dishonesty was prevalent on their state's standardized assessment that a test security company was hired to monitor irregularities. Due to the researcher's residency and familiarity with the state's system, Texas was chosen from the list indicated by Storm & Storm. It was the researcher's intent to use the indicated study and chose a district that was implicated. However, the study used very conservative statistical models for the analysis, and thus, identified few classrooms that had statistically anomalous results (Maynes, 2005). In the report, Maynes reminded the reader that factors other than cheating

may have produced the anomalous result. With this documentation, the researcher was concerned that beginning with such a limited sample would result in statistical errors. Therefore, a district of convenience that displayed antidotal parameters, i.e. large numbers of students from low socioeconomic backgrounds, large numbers of non-white students and large numbers of students with limited English proficiency, was chosen to participate in the current study.

Specifically, the data source for this study was elementary teachers from a school district with more than 20,000 students located in Southeast Texas. Elementary teachers were chosen for their link to the Schwartz (1992) study on values. The participating district, as a whole, consisted of approximately 5% Asian-Americans, 20% African Americans, 45% Latino, and 30% European Americans. Over 40% of the students were labeled as economically disadvantaged and over 10% were identified as having limited English proficiency. Within the district, schools varied from those that closely represent the district as a whole to those that were very homogeneous in nature.

Invitations to participate in the study were sent to campus principals via district administration. This method of contact was requested by the district administration as a means to control access to the teachers and ensure participants of district support. From the original invitation, 10 campuses chose to participate. Using a random number generator, the campuses were assigned an identification number. Tables 3.1 and 3.2 show the demographic composition of the ten participating campuses.

Table 3.1
Student Demographic Data from Participating Campuses

Campus	% African American	% Asian American	% Hispanic	% White	% Ec Dis[a]	% LEP[b]	Total number of students
1	10.4	9.8	9.3	70.3	3.9	3.5	991
2	20.3	5.6	22.5	51.0	26.6	12.3	586
3	6.3	.2	85.3	8.1	79.5	35.2	653
4	26.3	11.2	14.1	48.1	13.8	8.3	723
5	18.5	.2	68.2	13.2	79.1	23.9	493
6	6.1	.1	79.3	14.0	73.0	28.0	701
7	26.7	8.0	32.0	33.3	29.7	8.7	438
8	35.3	29.2	16.7	18.7	23.3	20.1	651
9	15.7	.3	65.5	18.0	66.5	13.3	750
10	10.8	.3	76.3	12.3	70.9	22.9	729

[a] Economically Disadvantaged; [b] Limited English Proficiency; Data Source was 2008 AEIS Report

Table 3.2
Teacher Demographic Data and AEIS Rating from Participating Campuses

Campus	% African American	%Asian American	% Hispanic	% White	#	AEIS Rating
1	2.4	0	21.8	75.8	42	E
2	5.0	1.6	5.6	87.7	59	R
3	0	2.3	4.7	93.0	42	E
4	0	0	20.8	79.2	33	E
5	7.7	0	7.3	85.0	41	E
6	5.2	2.6	16.5	75.8	38	R
7	2.2	2.2	9.9	85.6	45	R
8	2.2	0	28.5	69.3	44	E
9	2 4.1	0	26.2	69.8	49	A
10	3.5	0	3.5	93	29	E
District	10.6	.8	12.4	76.2	1700	A

E-Exemplary; R=Recognized; A=Acceptable
Data Source: 2008 AEIS Report

Teachers from the self-selected campuses were invited to participate by an email from the school principal. Each teacher received the invitation to participate on his/her school email account as an attachment from the school principal. Participants were given the option to remove themselves from the survey at any point. The developed survey instrument was housed on-line at Survey Monkey. Individual responses, sans any indentifying parameters, were stored on the Survey Monkey data base. The original survey window was four weeks during the spring semester of 2009, but was extended to solicit a larger return rate. Participation was encouraged through the use of three reminders at two week intervals. The reminders were sent from the researcher to the teachers by way of the district administration and the campus principal. The researcher had no direct contact with the respondents. At the

end of the collection period, exact responses were downloaded into an Excel spreadsheet, transformed (Table 3.3) into nominal data, and then entered into SPSS for analysis.

Table 3.3
Survey Data Definitions and Transformations

Section	Collected Data	Transformed Data	Operational Definition	Category Levels
1	Campus Name	Campus Number	Random number assigned to identify campus	1-10
2	Age	Remained continuous		
2	Ethnicity:		To prevent frequency violation, the categories were condensed to European American or Non European American	0=Non European American 1=European American
	African American	1=African American		
	Asian American	2=Asian American		
	European American	3= European American		
	Hispanic	4= Hispanic		
	Native American	5=Native American		
	Other or Blended	6=Other or Blended		
2	Type of certification Program		Indicates education tract to obtain certification	1=College education program with student teaching 2=College education program without student teaching 3=any method that did not include a college of education program
2	Years experience (1)	Continuous data		
2	Years experience at campus(1)	Continuous data		

Table 3.3
Continued

Section	Collected Data	Transformed Data	Operational Definition	Category Levels
2	Years experience at campus(2)	Experienced or Probationary	Campus experience is defined as more than 3 years on the current campus	0=Probationary (0-3 years) 1=Experienced (3+years)
2	Grade Level 0=kindergarten 1=1st 2=2nd… 5=5th	Grade level that administers state standardized test (TAKS) or not	TAKS grades =3-5 Non TAKS grades = K-2	0=Non TAKS 1=TAKS
2	Subjects taught(1)	Category assigned	Subject indicated	1=ELA/Reading 2=Math 3=Science 4=Social Studies 5=All or self contained classroom 6=Art, music, PE, outclass
2	Subjects taught(2)	Data was condensed to TAKS subject or Non TAKS subject	TAKS Subject= grade 3 ELA; grade 4 ELA & math; grade 5 ELA, math & science Non TAKS subject= all subjects taught in K-2 & any subject not listed above taught in grades 3-5	0 = Non TAKS 1=TAKS
3	Self Efficacy	Belief in ability to teach all children to assigned grade level mastery regardless of their native language or current performance level	Teach all children and teach them to mastery; any negative response resulted in condense coding of No.	0=No 1=Yes

Table 3.3
Continued

Section	Collected Data	Transformed Data	Operational Definition	Category Levels
4	Work Environment	One measure of organizational socialization is collaborative team work	Collaborative involvement of academic team	0=No 1=Yes
5	Values (1)		Value chosen as most important	1=Sense of Accomplishment 2=Self-Respect 3=Self-Fulfillment 4=Warm Relationships 5=Fun-Enjoyment-Excitement 6=Sense of Belonging 7=Security 8=Being Well Respected
5	Value Type	Values can be classified as either fulfillment values or deficit values	Fulfillment Values = Sense of Accomplishment Self-Respect Self-Fulfillment Warm Relationships Fun-Enjoyment-Excitement Deficit Values = Sense of Belonging Security Being Well Respected	0=Deficit value 1=Fulfillment value

Table 3.3
Continued

Section	Collected Data	Transformed Data	Operational Definition	Category Levels
6	Policies	Individuals must be familiar with policies before they can be held accountable for policy violation	Familiar with both district and state academic policies	0=No* 1=Yes
6	Organizational Socialization	Indication that campus and/ or team discussed and reviewed academic policies	Explicit review of specific policies	0=No 1=Yes
7	Academic misconduct-Direct questions	Direct questions regarding academic policies. Answers indicating violation were based on written policies and validation of District Administrator	Violation of a written policy	0=Policy not violated 1=Policy violated
8	Academic misconduct-Scenarios	Situations involving academic policies. Answers indicating violation were based on written policies and validation of District Administrator	Violation of a written policy	0=Policy not violated 1=Policy violated

Table 3.3
Continued

Section	Collected Data	Transformed Data	Operational Definition	Category Levels
8	Ethical paradigm	Respondents choose a reason for each grading decision	Framework or reason that guides decisions. Justice: uphold traditional rule, policy or procedure; strives to apply rules equally to all students Care: develop and maintain caring relationship with student; show respect for the student as an individual Critique: level the field for students from different political or social situations Profession: act in the best interest of the child while abiding by parameters of professional code will	1=Justice 2=Care 3=Critique 4=Profession

*any respondent that indicated lack of policy knowledge was removed from corresponding sections of the analysis

Additionally, archival records of district policies regarding academic dishonesty, along with testing and training procedures, were gathered.

Data Analysis

Statistical Tests Using Categorical Data. The data collected in this study were both continuous and categorical. Categorical data can be divided into two types: ordinal or nominal. In this study, all data was transformed to nominal data. (See Table 3.3 for operational definitions and transformation process.) As a study containing non-continuous

data, the assumptions of parametric tests were not met; therefore, means and standard deviations were meaningless. However, for nonparametric categorical data, parallel statistical tests exist that are based on counts, frequencies, and probabilities instead of means. While some will argue that power is lost when these nonparametric tests are employed, the statistical literature solidly indicated that nominal data can provide more meaningful information than numbers alone (Black, 1999).

Distributions of categorical data are based on the number of possible outcomes from *n* independent and identical trials. These distributions can be multinomial or binomial. Multinomial results provide more than two outcomes, such as yes, no, or maybe; while binomial distributions provide only two possible outcomes, such as yes or no. In either case, the distribution is calculated from the formula:

$$P(n_1, n_2, \ldots n_c) = \left(\frac{n!}{n_1!\, n_2!\ldots n_c!}\right)\pi_1^{n_1}\pi_2^{n_2}\ldots\pi_c^{n_c}$$

where *c* denotes the number of outcome categories, *n* is the number of independent observations, and π is the probability. For this to hold true,

$$\sum\nolimits_j \pi_j = 1 \text{ and } \sum\nolimits_j n_j = n$$

must be met (Agresti, 2007).

For binomial distributions, the distribution formula for outcome *y* for *Y* is reduced to

$$P(y) = \frac{n!}{y!(n-y)!}\pi^y(1-n)^{n-y},\ y = 0,1,2,\ldots n\cdot$$

This distribution is symmetrical and bell shaped when π=0.50 and *n* is large, giving a mean of $\mu = n\pi$ and a standard deviation of

$$\sigma = \sqrt{n\pi(1-\pi)}\,.$$

The value of a large sample size varies by author from 30 to 100; however, all agree that regardless of the sample size, the expected frequency of each cell must be at least 1 and 80% or more of the cells must have expected frequencies of 5 or greater (Agresti, 2007; Black, 1999; Field, 2005; Mertler & Vannatta, 2005).

Significance was tested using Pearson's chi-square (X^2).

$$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(n_{ij} - \mu_{ij})^2}{\mu_{ij}}$$

or more simply:

$$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(observed_{ij} - \exp ected_{ij})^2}{\exp ected_{ij}}$$

where the expected or model is the row totals multiplied by the column totals divided by the total number of observations

$$Model_{ij} = E_{ij} = \frac{RowTotal_i xColumnTotal_j}{n}$$

Effect size for focused comparisons used the odds ratio:

$$\theta = \frac{odds_1}{odds_2} = \frac{\pi_1 / (1-\pi_1)}{\pi_2 / (1-\pi_2)}$$

Logistic regression was used to predict group membership. This very flexible and robust statistical model did not assume normality, linearity or equal variances. Logistic regression utilized probabilities to determine into which bivariant category a subject would fall. Mertler & Vannatta (2005, p.318-319) illustrated the combination of the "ideas of probabilities, odds, and logits into one equation:

$$\hat{Y}_i = \frac{e^u}{1+e^u}$$

where $\hat{Y}_i$ is the estimated probability that the i^{th} case is in one of the categories of the DV, and e is a constant equal to 2.718, raised to the power of *u* where *u* is the usual regression equation:

$$u = B_0 + \mathrm{B}_1\mathrm{X}_1 + B_2X_2 + ...B_kX_k$$

The linear regression equation (*u)* is then the natural log of the probability of being in one group divided by the probability of being in the other group. The linear regression equation creates the logit of log of the odds:

$$\ln(\tfrac{\hat{Y}}{1-\hat{Y}}) = B_0 + B_1X_1 + B_2X_2 + ... + B_kX_k$$ "

The model fit was analyzed using a *-2Log Likelihood of 0* and the *Goodness of Fit* statistic; each compared predicted values to observed values. An index close to 0 indicated good model fit. Each model variable was analyzed with its regression coefficient, *B*, standard error

of *B*, *SE*, measure of significance, *Wald*, the partial correlation of each IV with DV, *R*, and the odds ratio of each variable, *ExpB* (Mertler & Vannatta, 2005). Since this investigation was exploratory in nature, a forward stepping method was utilized; thus only IVs that significantly predicted the DV were included in the model. Data were screened for missing data and outliers using a preliminary multiple regression and the explore procedure. (Mertler & Vannatta, 2005).

Research Questions

In this section, the main research question will be presented along with a brief rationale for its selection. Following the rationale, sub questions and associated information will be listed.

Question 1

Q 1. Is there evidence to support that teachers engage in academic misconduct?

Rationale. The researched literature review revealed many studies indicating the academic misconduct of students and of college professors, but none included the possibility of teachers violating grading or testing policies. This question, with the following listed sub questions and associated information, was designed to link the present study with those in the review of literature by empirically establishing that teachers do or do not violate grading policies.

Question 1.1: Do teachers self-report violations of academic policies?

Analysis: Frequency calculation

H_0: Teachers will report that they do not violate academic policies.

Question 1.2: Do more teachers report academic dishonesty when situations are presented in a scenario than when situations are asked directly?

Analysis: frequency test

H_0: Teachers will report equally on the two parameters of academic dishonesty.

Question 1.3: Do teachers violate grading policies more often than testing policies?

Analysis: frequency test

H_0: Teachers will report equally on the two parameters of academic dishonesty.

Question 1.4: Do teachers that teach in NCLB tested grade levels violate testing polices at the same rate as those that do not teach NCLB tested grades?

Analysis: frequency test

H_0: Teachers will report equally on the two parameters of academic dishonesty.

Question 1.5: Is there a relationship between age, ethnicity and experience on academic misconduct?

Analysis: logistic regression

DV: academic misconduct

IV: age, ethnicity, campus experience

H_0: There is no relationship between age, ethnicity and experience on academic misconduct.

Question 2

Q 2. Is there evidence to support a relationship between self-efficacy and the likelihood that teachers engage in academic misconduct?

Rationale. Both students and professors indicated that pressure was a strong motivator for cheating. The description of pressure in each referenced case bore elements of self-efficacy. Teacher's primary function is to teach children. If a teacher feels inadequately prepared to teach all children, one can expect that teacher to feel pressured by the NCLB laws.

Question 2.1: Do all teachers believe that they can teach all children?

Analysis: frequency calculation.

H_0: All teachers believe they can teach all children.

Question 2.2: Do teachers believe that they can teach all children to mastery?

Analysis: frequency calculation.

H_0: All teachers believe they can teach all children to mastery.

Question 2.3a: Is there a relationship between self-efficacy and a teacher's choice to violate grading policy?

Analysis: chi-square test

H_0: There is no relationship between self-efficacy and a teacher's choice to violate grading policy.

Question 2.3b: Is there a relationship between self-efficacy and a teacher's choice to violate high-stakes testing policy?

Analysis: chi-square test

H_0: There is no relationship between self-efficacy and a teacher's choice to violate high-stakes testing policy.

Question 2.4: Is there a relationship between self-efficacy and teaching assignment?

Analysis: logistic regression

H_0: There is no relationship between self-efficacy and a teaching assignment.

Question 3

Q 3. Is there evidence to suggest a relationship between organizational socialization and the likelihood that teachers will engage in academic misconduct?

Rationale. Finn & Frone (2004) reported that students who felt connected to school were less likely to cheat. Whitley (1998), as well as Kelley et al., (2006) reported that increased conversation and collaboration in organizations reduced alienation. For this study,

organizational socialization was operationally defined as a collaborative environment where policies are reviewed.

Question 3.1: Is there a relationship between organizational socialization and a teacher's choice to violate grading policy?

Analysis: logistic regression

IV: violation

DV: years experience at campus, collaboration, policy review

H_0: There is no relationship between organizational socialization and a teacher's choice to violate grading policy?

.

Question 3.2: Is there a relationship between organizational socialization and a teacher's choice to violate high-stakes testing policies?

Analysis: logistic regression

IV: violation

DV: years experience at campus, collaboration, policy review

H_0: There is no relationship between organizational socialization and a teacher's choice to violate high-stakes testing policies.

Question 4

Q 4. Is there evidence to suggest a relationship between values and the likelihood that teachers will engage in academic misconduct?

Question 4.1: Do teachers have the same types of values?

Analysis: frequency calculation of each value selected as most important

H_0: All teachers will report the same type of values.

Question 4.2: Do teachers' value types become more similar over time?

Analysis: logistic regression

IV: value

DV: years experience; years experience at campus

H_0: Teacher's values become more similar over time.

Question 4.3: There is no relationship between age, ethnicity, experience and values types?

Analysis: logistic regression

IV: values

DV: age, ethnicity, years teaching

H_0: There is no relationship between age, ethnicity, experience and values types.

Question 4.4: Is there a relationship between self-efficacy and values?

Analysis: logistic regression

H_0: There is no relationship between self-efficacy and values.

Question 4.5: Is there a relationship between types of values and academic misconduct?

Analysis: logistic regression

H_0: There is no relationship between types of values and academic misconduct.

Question 4.5a: Is there a relationship between types of values and academic misconduct regarding grading policies?

Analysis: logistic regression

H_0: There is no relationship between types of values and academic misconduct regarding grading policies

Question 4.5b: Is there a relationship between types of values and academic misconduct regarding testing policies?

Analysis: logistic regression

H_0: There is no relationship between types of values and academic misconduct regarding testing policies.

Question 5

Q5. Is there evidence to suggest a relationship between ethical frames and the likelihood that teachers will engage in academic misconduct?

Question 5.1: Is there a relationship between age, ethnicity, experience and ethical frames?

Analysis: chi squared test

DV: ethical frames

IV: age, ethnicity, years of teaching experience

H_0: There is no relationship between age, ethnicity, experience and ethical frames

Question 5.2: Is there a relationship between violating grading policy and ethical frames?

Analysis: logistic regression

DV: ethical frames

IV: age, ethnicity, years of teaching experience

H_0: There is no relationship between violating grading policy and ethical frames.

Question 5.3: Is there a relationship between violating high-stakes testing policy and ethical frames?

Analysis: logistic regression

DV: ethical frames

IV: age, ethnicity, years of teaching experience

H_0: There is no relationship between violating high-stakes testing and ethical frames

Question 5.4: Is there a relationship between values and ethical frames?

Analysis: chi squared test

DV: ethical frames

IV: values

H_0: There is no relationship between values and ethical frames.

Question 5.5: Is there a relationship between self-efficacy and ethical paradigm?

Analysis: chi squared test

DV: ethical frames

IV: self-efficacy

H_0: There is no relationship between self-efficacy and ethical frames

Question 6

Q 6. Is there evidence to suggest a relationship between social adaptation theory the likelihood that teachers will engage in academic misconduct?

Rationale. Kahle (1983) and Homer and Kahle (1988) suggest that under social adaptation theory, values and ethical frames work together under the umbrella of organizational socialization to influence action.

IV: value type, ethical paradigm

H_0: There is no relationship between types of values, ethical frames, and academic misconduct.

Summary

Chapter III has provided the reader with not only the design of the study but also with the rationale and connection to the current literature for each component. Specifically, this chapter walked the reader through the basis for the design and validation of the utilized survey instrument. It provided the basic formulas for the data analysis. In summary, this exploratory quantitative study utilized frequency, cross tabs and logistic regression (Agresti, 2007) to analyze data from a self-administered survey to determine if there was a relationship between organizational socialization, values, ethical frames, and Kahle's (1983) social adaptation theory to teacher's self-reported behavior in respect to academic misconduct in the context of high stakes testing and accountability.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between organizational socialization, values, ethical frames, and Kahle's social adaptation theory and teacher's self-reported behavior in respect to academic misconduct. The data obtained from a self-administered survey were analyzed using the SPSS statistical software, version 15.0 and 16.0. It first used frequency analysis to identify and categorize the survey respondents. Next, the chapter followed the structure of the research questions. As the questions moved from descriptive to inferential, the statistical tests moved from simple frequencies to logistic regression (Agresti, 2007). As a relatively small exploratory study, it is understood no finding could be assumed to be causal, but could only suggest areas of possible extension or alignment with the existing literature (Creswell, 2003).

Survey Respondents

Two hundred and thirteen elementary educators responded to the self-administered questionnaire, providing a return rate of approximately 50%. After filtering for respondents who were teachers of record and that indicated a complete familiarity with academic policies, 155 or 73% remained in the data set. Fifty-one percent of the teachers described themselves as persons of color. The majority, 84%, reported their highest educational degree to be that of a bachelor; the remaining 16% held a masters degree. Most, 75%, obtained their teaching certification through a traditional manner as opposed to an alternative certification program (ACP). Just under half, 48%, taught in self-contained classrooms; they taught English, reading, math, science, and social studies to their assigned group of students. Forty-two

percent taught in a state tested area, and 18% taught in an area evaluated by NCLB. If given the opportunity to change professions, 80% indicated that they would choose to remain teachers. Figure 4.1 and Figure 4.2 give a visual representation of these descriptors.

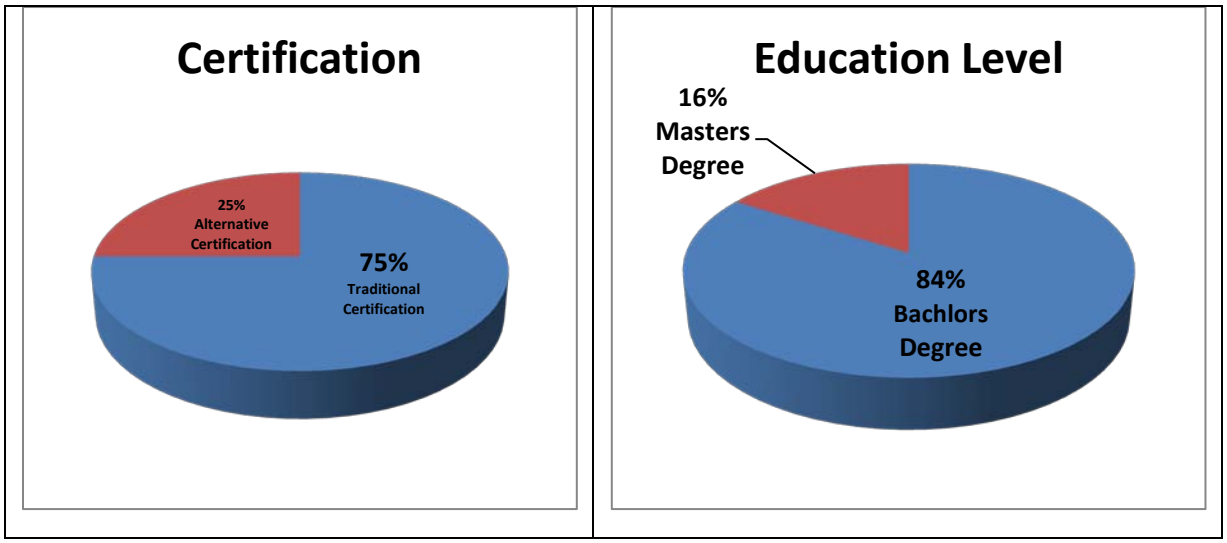

Figure 4.1. **Respondents Certification and Education Level**

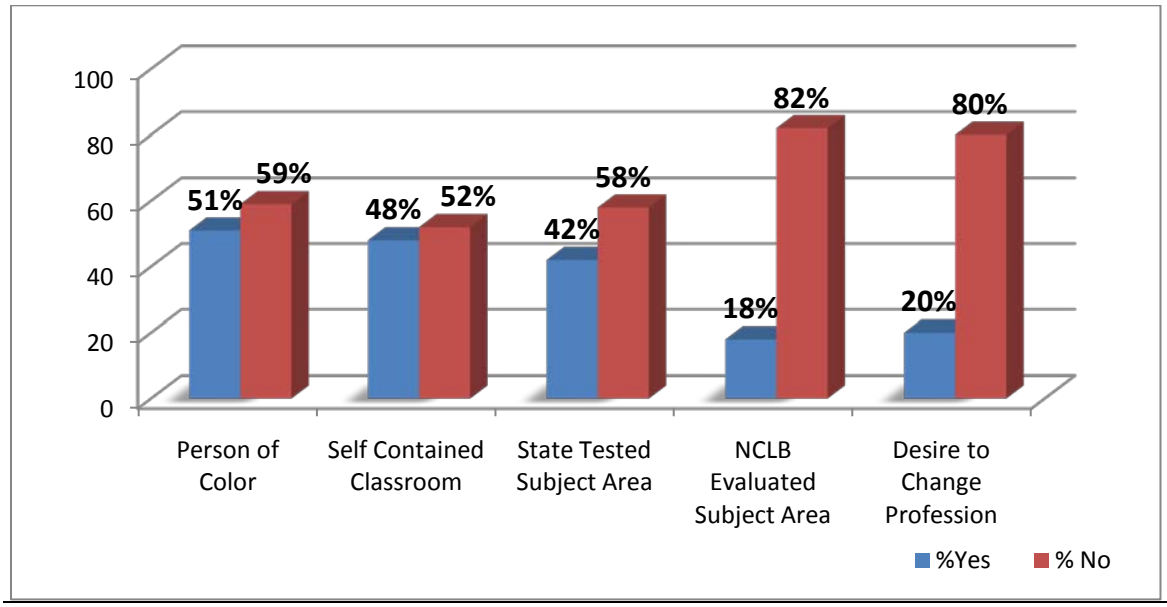

Figure 4.2. **Respondent Descriptors**

Analysis of Research Questions

From previous discussion, this study followed a postpositive perspective (Creswell, 2003), thus the research questions progressed from descriptive to inferential. Analysis results were considered possible or suggestive, not causal.

Question 1

Q1: Is there evidence to suggest that teachers engage in academic misconduct? This first question set the premise for the remaining areas of study. This question sought to determine if, as projected by the literature (Davey et al., 2007), elementary teachers would self-report violations of academic polices. Without both affirmative and negative responses in this area, there would be no variance in the dependent variable used throughout the study.

The policies were divided into to two types: grading and testing. An individual teacher was coded as a violator if any single response was in opposition to the corresponding local or state policy.

Question 1.1: Do teachers self-report violations of academic policies? (N=155)

H_0*:* Teachers will report that they do not violate academic policies.

Of the valid responses (n=149), simple frequency analysis (Figure 4.3) indicated that just over 90% of the sample reported violating at least one policy. While having teachers report in the affirmative to policy violations was not unexpected, (Davey et al., 2007), the magnitude of the reported violation was above the upper limit of 75% reported in the studies outlined in Chapter II. However, when the reports were isolated to the type of policy being violated (78% reported violating a grading policy while 47% reported violating a testing policy), the violation fell within the 25% to 75% range demonstrated by students in the cited

studies. This high rate supports the ability to meet the assumptions of nonparametric tests. The null was rejected.

Question 1.2: Do more teachers report academic dishonesty when situations are presented in a scenario than when situations are asked directly? (N=155)

H_0*:* More teachers will not report academic dishonesty when situations are presented in a scenario than when situations are asked directly.

Frequency analysis indicated that 58% of teachers indicated at least one violation of an academic policy when the policy was presented in a direct question (ex. Do you add points, curve grades, when students do not perform as expected)? The percentage of teachers who indicated they would take an action that violated a policy increased to 72% when the policy was presented in a scenario (ex. A student that struggles academically and comes from a very difficult home life has an average of 67 at the end of the grading period. Do you record a passing grade on the report card?). The null was rejected.

Question 1.3: Do more teachers report violating grading policies than testing policies?

H_0*:* Teachers will not violate grading policies more often than testing policies.

Frequency analysis indicated that 78% of the teachers responded with an action that violated a grading policy while 48% indicated an action that was a violation of a testing policy. The null was rejected.

Question 1.4: Does type of preparation and teaching assignment influence academic misconduct? (N=155)

H_0*:* The type of preparation and assignment will have no influence on academic misconduct.

Question 1.4 moved from the descriptive to the inferential and required a corresponding statistical test. With a binary categorical dependent variable and independent variables that were either categorical or continuous, binary logistical regression was chosen as the statistical test. Several factors were entered into the system and analyzed using a forward stepping model. Forward stepping method was used in order to retain only factors that contributed to the model.

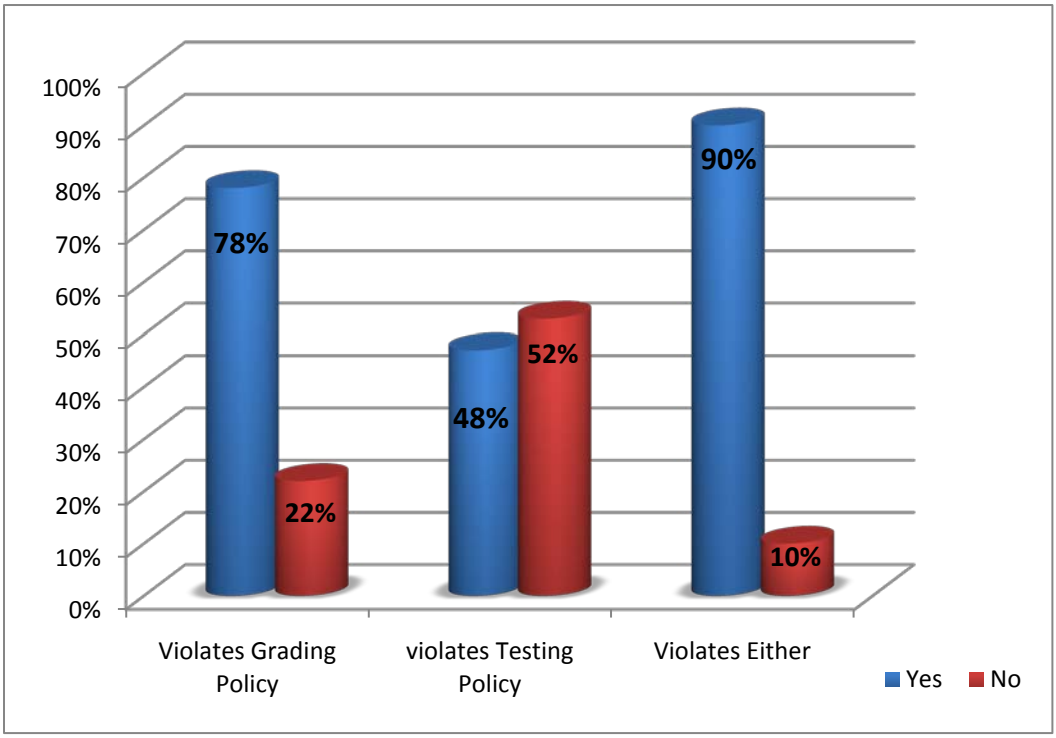

Figure 4.3. **Percent of Teachers Reporting a Violation of an Academic Policy**

Table 4.1, displayed the results when the dependent variable of violation of the late work policy was regressed with the independent variables of certification, grade level, and aspects of the subject taught. The forward stepping model retained the type of preparation, grade level, and NCLB evaluation as model factors. The goodness of fit tests with a $p > .05$ ($p = .78$), indicated that the factors in the model were parsimonious and independent of each

other. The reduction in the value of the link function, -2LL fell from 209.43 to 158.32, indicated the model provided a better fit to the data than the original constant. Also, the observed probability association over the expected association increased from 54.6% to 74.3%. That is to say that the model correctly identified just over 74% of the respondents as either a violator or non-violator of the late work policy. According to the Nagelkerke statistic (R^2_N = .38), this model accounted for just under than 40% of the variance exhibited by the respondents.

This table also indicated the possibility that teachers who received their certification through a traditional method were almost 5 times more likely to violate this policy than those who were certified through an ACP. When compared to those who taught fifth grade, second grade teachers appeared to be more likely to violate the policy, while fourth grade teachers appeared less likely to violate the policy. Finally, those who taught in grades that were not evaluated by NCLB appeared to be approximately 12% less likely to violate the policy than those who taught in grades that were included in the NCLB data set.

Table 4.1
Regression Statistics for Violating Grading Policy to Assignment and Preparation

Source	Variable	β (logit)	SE	Wald	Exp(β)
Step 3	College Based Teacher Prep	1.60	.48	11.08***	4.94
	Grade			23.80***	.26
	2nd Grade	-1.34	.84	7.94***	2.21
	4th Grade	.79	.66	4.25*	.18
	Non-NCLB Tested Assignment	-1.72	.66	.79**	.88
	Constant	-.13	.59	.05^	

		Goodness of Fit			Nagelkerke	Percent
Source	-2LL	X^2	*df*	Sig.	R^2	Correct
Model	158.32	3.97	7	.78	.38	74.3
Constant	209.43					54.6

Note: *p<.05; **p=.01, ***p<.01, ^p=.82

When the analysis shifted to testing policies, the type of preparation no longer appeared to be a possible contributor. This second review of assignment and preparation in regard to violation of testing policy (Table 4.2) whether presented in a direct question or a scenario suggested the grade level taught (Wald (5) = 12.44, p = .03) and campus assignment (Wald (9) =21.86, p = .01) significantly contributed to the model. Again, the lower grades, when compared to fifth grade, seem to have exhibited a higher propensity for violating testing policies. These two factors appeared to have contributed 30% (R^2_N= .30) of the variance between those who reported a violation and those that did not. The model also appeared to correctly identify slightly less than 72% of the cases.

Table 4.2
Regression Statistics for Violating Testing Policy to Teaching Assignment

Source	Variable	β (logit)	SE	Wald	Exp(β)
Step 3	Grade			12.44*	
	Kindergarten	1.54	.69	4.97*	4.66
	1st Grade	1.65	.63	6.78**	5.19
	Campus		57	21.86*[a]	
	Constant	-.27	.66	.18^	

		Goodness of Fit			Nagelkerke	Percent
Source	-2LL	X^2	*df*	Sig.	R^2	Correct
Model	168.34	5.37	8	.72	.30	71.8
Constant	206.01					53.0

Note: *p<.05; **p=.01,, ^p=.67
[a] individual campus data provides no discernable significance

Question 1.5: Is there a relationship between age, ethnicity, or experience and academic misconduct?

H_0: There is no relationship between age, ethnicity, or experience on academic misconduct.

Both backward and forward entry logistic regression methods indicated the possibility that age made a significant impact on academic misconduct in several parameters. As indicated in Table 4.3, even though the overall percentage between the constant and model did not change, the -2LL reduction, varying from 5 to near 10 units, indicated that the model better represented the data than the constant. In each parameter, a unit increase in age indicated a possible violation increase in the specific policy or policies. The resulting data for individuals who indicated that they violated both testing and grading polices suggested that age (Table 4.4) accounted for 26% ($R^2_N = 0.26$) of the variance. It also appeared that the greater the value of the link function, the greater the contribution to the variance. The null was rejected.

Table 4.3
Regression Statistics for Academic Misconduct with Age, Ethnicity, and Years of Teaching Experience

Source	Variable	β (logit)	SE	Wald	Exp(β)
	Violate Testing Policy [a]				
Model					
Step 1	Age	.12	.04	7.45**	1.12
Constant	Constant	-2.89	.36	63.32***	.06
	Violate Testing or Grading Policy [a, b]				
Model					
Step 1	Age	.05	.02	6.33*	1.05
	Constant	-1.32	.20	44.14**	.27
	Violate Testing and Grading Policy [a, b]				
Model					
Step 1	Age	.17	.07	6.56*	1.19
	Constant	-3.38	.45	55.28***	.03

Table 4.4
Goodness of Fit Summary for Academic Misconduct with Age, Ethnicity, and Years of Teaching Experience

Source	-2LL	Goodness of Fit X^2	*df*	Sig.	Nagelkerke R^2	Percent Correct
Violate Testing Policy [a]						
Model	53.62	3.8	8	.87	.17	94.7
Constant	62.68					94.7
Violate Testing or Grading Policy [a, b]						
Model	149.94	5.76	8	.67	.06	78.9
Constant	156.46					78.9
Violate Testing and Grading Policy [a, b]						
Model	33.67	8.65	8	.37	.26	96.7
Constant	43.98					96.7

Note. : *p=.01; **p<.01, ***p<.001; [a] Data obtained from direct questions regarding grading and testing policies. [b] Violation of late work policy is omitted from grading policy data.

Through the progression of the first research question, it appeared that teachers readily admitted to violating both testing and grading policies polices. Age appeared to be the personal factor that informed the models while grade level taught was the consistent non-personal factor that appeared to most influence the dependent variables.

Question 2

Q2: Is there evidence to suggest a relationship between self-efficacy and the likelihood that teachers will engage in academic misconduct?

Question 2.1: Do all responding teachers believe that they can teach all children?

H_0*:* All responding teachers do not believe they can teach all children.

Ninety-two percent of the responding teachers (Figure 4.4) reported a belief in their ability to teach all children. If the students spoke English the percentage rose to 95%. If the student entered the classroom on grade level, the percent of teachers that believed they could teach all students rose to 99%. From these data points, teachers appear to have a high degree of self-efficacy for teaching all children.

Question 2.2: Do all responding teachers believe that they can teach all children to mastery?

H_0: All responding teachers do not believe they can teach all children to mastery.

When self-efficacy was analyzed from the perspective of NCLB, only fifty-two percent of the responding teachers reported a belief in their ability to teach all children to mastery. If the students spoke English the percentage rose to 59%. If the student entered the classroom on grade level, the percent of teachers who believe they could teach all students rose to 90%.

The added expectation of NCLB and teaching to mastery appeared to have a negative impact on teachers' self-efficacy (Figure 4.4). The 40% drop in affirmative responses between the teaching and teaching to mastery is a possible indicator of increased pressure felt by teachers as a result the 2001 legislation.

Question 2.3: Is there a significant difference in the number of teachers who believe they can teach all children and the number who believe they can teach all children to mastery?

H_0: There is no significant difference in the number of teachers that believe they can teach all children and the number that believe they can teach all children to mastery.

By using a the Pearson Chi-Square (crosstabs in SPSS) test to examine the number of teachers that report belief in themselves to teach all children compared to those that reported belief in themselves to teach all children to mastery, a significant difference ($\chi^2 = 14.24$, df = 1, $p < .001$) was calculated. The null was rejected.

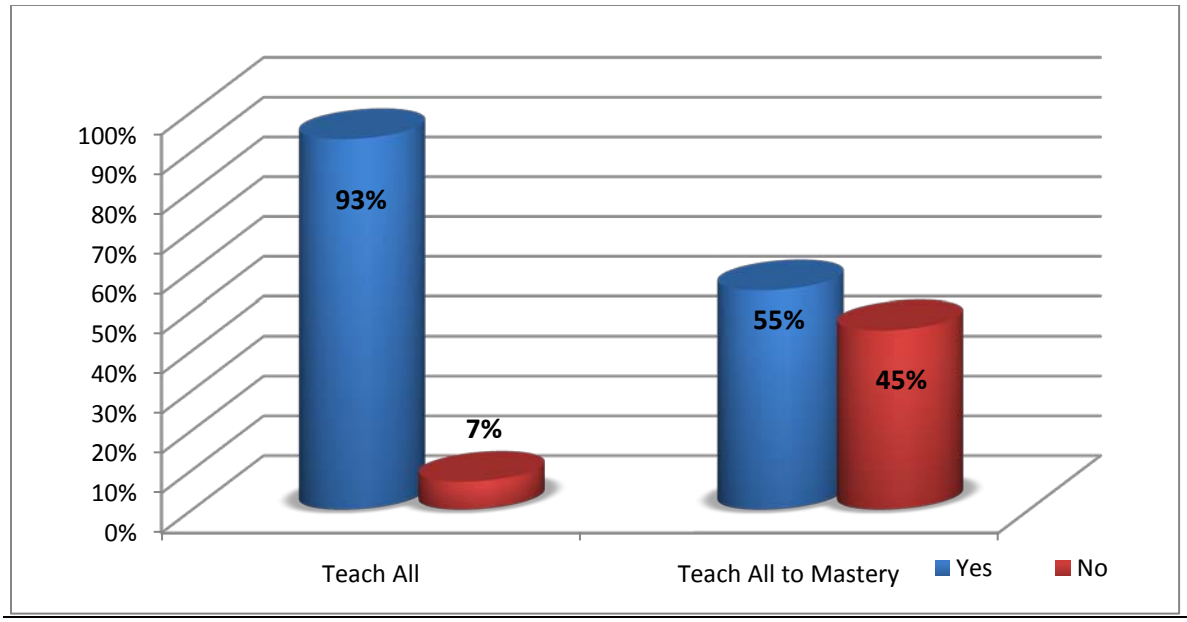

Figure 4.4. **Demonstration of Teacher's Self-efficacy**

Question 2.4: Is there a relationship between self-efficacy and a teacher's choice to violate grading policy?

H_0*:* There is no relationship between self-efficacy and a teacher's choice to violate grading policy.

The resulting $\alpha > .05$ suggested that self-efficacy and a teacher's choice to violate grading policies were independent factors. The null was not rejected.

Question 2.5: Is there a relationship between self-efficacy and a teacher's choice to violate high-stakes testing policy?

H_0*:* There is no relationship between self-efficacy and a teacher's choice to violate high-stakes testing policy.

Again, the resulting $p > .05$ suggested that self-efficacy and a teacher's choice to violate grading policies were independent factors. The null was not rejected.

Question 2.6: Is there a relationship between self-efficacy and teaching assignment?

H_0: There is no relationship between self-efficacy and a teaching assignment.

When investigating the possible relationship between self-efficacy with teaching assignment (Table 4.4), a weak relationship (-2LL = 210.06) was identified. The model correctly classified just under 59% of the cases and accounted for 4% of the variance. As the percentage of at-risk students at a campus increases, the odds that a teacher would report a belief in his/her ability to teach all students to mastery appeared to decrease approximately 2% for each year of service (Table 4.5). The power of this model was reinforced by the upper and lower limit of the confidence interval; both values resided between 0 and 1.

Table 4.5
Regression Statistics for Self-efficacy with Teaching Assignment [a]

Source	Variable	B	SE	Wald	Exp(β)
Step 1	Percent of at-risk students	-.02	.01	4.34*	.98
	Constant	1.04	.49	4.59*	2.85

		Goodness of Fit			Nagelkerke	Percent
Source	-2LL	X^2	*df*	Sig.	R^2	Correct
Model	210.06	12.03	7	.10	.04	58.7
Constant	214.56					52.3

Note: *p<.05; [a]Teaching assignments included variables for campus id, campus AEIS rating, % LEP population, % at-risk population, grade taught, TAKS subject taught, and NCLB tested area taught

The null was rejected.

While teachers appeared to question their ability to meet the instructional parameters of NCLB, there did not appear to be strong link between reported self-efficacy and reported academic misconduct. However, there did appear to have been a suggestion that an

aggregate of students labeled as “at-risk” could possibly impact a teacher’s interaction with academic policies.

Question 3

Q3: Is there evidence to suggest a relationship between organizational socialization and the likelihood that teachers will engage in academic misconduct?

Finn & Frone (2004) reported that students who felt connected to school were less likely to violate academic guidelines. Whitley (1998) reported that increased conversation and collaboration in organizations reduces alienation. For this study, organizational socialization was operationally defined as a collaborative environment where policies were reviewed.

Question 3.1: Is there a relationship between organizational socialization and a teacher’s choice to violate grading policy?

H_0: There is no relationship between organizational socialization and a teacher’s choice to violate grading policy.

The propensity to violate grading policies (Table 4.6) seemed to be slightly influenced by both years a teacher spent at a campus (Wald (1) =3.99, p = .04) and the interactions of the adults on campus (Wald (1) =4.56, p = .03).

Table 4.6
Regression Statistics for Violation of Grading Policy with Socialization

Source	Variable	β (logit)	SE	Wald	Exp(β)
Step 2	Years employed at campus	.7	.04	3.99*	1.07
	No Collaboration	1.7	.55	4.56*	3.43
	Constant	-1.86	.32	34.43**	.16

		Goodness of Fit			Nagelkerke	Percent
Source	-2LL	X^2	*df*	Sig.	R^2	Correct
Model	151.88	8.53	7	.29	.08	79.1
Constant	159.55					78.4

Note: *p<.05; **p=<01,

The evaluation linked the possibility of a slight increase in violation of grading policy (Exp (β) = 1.07) with each year a teacher remained at the same campus. The odds ratio for collaboration appeared to indicate that those who do not feel that their team collaborated were almost 3.5 times more likely to violate a grading policy than those who reported the existence of collaboration.

Question 3.2: Is there a relationship between organizational socialization and a teacher's choice to violate high-stakes testing policies?

H_0: There is no relationship between organizational socialization and a teacher's choice to violate high-stakes testing policies.

When responses to collaboration, years of service at a campus, and campus identification were regressed on violation of high-stakes testing policy, both years at a campus and collaboration suggested a tendency to inform the model (Table 4.7). While the percent correct did not change in this model, the -2LL decreased from 62.79 to 42.28, which indicated the model was a better fit to the data than the constant. A goodness of fit α = .46 indicated each parameter of the model was independent. The regression coefficients suggest that for each extra year a teacher spent on campus, there was a 20% greater chance of the

teacher responding affirmatively to violating testing policy. Collaboration appeared to have a greater influence on testing violation. The test data indicated that those who reported that their team did not collaborate appeared to have odds of violating testing policy that was 23 times greater than those who indicated participation in team collaboration. The two factors appeared to account for 37% (R^2_N=.37) of the variance between those who reported an action that violated a policy and those who did not report a violating action.

Table: 4.7
Regression Statistics for Violation of Testing Policy with Team Socialization

Source	Variable	β (logit)	SE	Wald	Exp(β)
Step 2	Years employed at campus	.22	.06	11.19**	1.24
	No Team Collaboration	3.14	.98	10.36**	23.12
	Constant	-5.50	1.03	28.29*	< .01

		Goodness of Fit			Nagelkerke	Percent
Source	-2LL	X^2	*df*	Sig.	R^2	Correct
Model	42.28	6.75	7	.46	.37	94.8
Constant	62.79					94.8

Note: *p<.01; **p=.001

When grading and testing policies were analyzed in aggregate, review of policy emerges as a factor (Table 4.8). Teams that did not review policy seemed to impact the decision to violate a policy or not by a factor of 3 (Exp (β) =3.19).

Table 4.8
Regression Statistics for Violating Both Testing and Grading Policies with Socialization

Source	Variable	β (logit)	SE	Wald	Exp(β)
Step 1	Team does not Review	1.16	.59	3.92*	3.19
	Constant	.23	.18	1.69^	1.25

Source		Goodness of Fit			Nagelkerke	Percent
	-2LL	X^2	*df*	Sig.	R^2	Correct
Model	202.70	000	0	1.0	.04	58.8
Constant	207.31					58.8

Note: *p=.05; ^p=.19

Campus identification, (Wald (9) = 22.48, p =.01), seemed to have contributed to the variance in violating testing policy. Once at the campus, the years spent at the campus and the degree of socialization seemed to have a greater association with policy violation. As indicated in Table 4.9, socialization at the team level appeared to have a greater influence than socialization at the campus level in terms of the impact reviewing grading policies had on individual respondents. The Nagelkerke (R^2_N=.27) indicated the model accounted for 27% of the difference between those that violated and those that did not violate testing policy.

When a teacher reported poor relationships with his/her principal, the regression model suggested that the teacher would be just over 13 (Exp β=13.39) times more likely to have taken an action that violated a standardized testing policy than a teacher who reportedly had good relationships with the campus principal (Table 4.10). Combined with campus ID, the two factors display a R^2_N= .29, indicating a model that explained 29% of the variance.

Table 4.9

Regression Statistics for Violating Testing Policies, Both When Asked Directly or Presented in a Scenario, with Years at Campus, Campus ID, and Policy Reviews

Source	Variable	β (logit)	SE	Wald	Exp(β)
Model					
Step 3	Campus ID[a]			22.48**	
	Campus Not Review Grading Policy	-2.44	1.14	4.55*	.09
	Team Not review Grading Policy	2.22	.85	6.75**	9.19
	Constant	.21	.56	.15^	1.24

Source	-2LL	Goodness of Fit X^2	*df*	Sig.	Nagelkerke R^2	Percent Correct
		Violate Testing Policies		direct & scenario		
Model	173.04	.77	7	1.0	.27	70.5
Constant	206.01					53.0

Note: *p<.05; **p<.01, ^p=.70; [a] individual campus data provides no discernable significance

Table 4.10

Regression Statistics for Violation of Testing Policy with Campus Socialization[a]

Source	Variable	B	SE	Wald	Exp(β)
Model					
Step 3	Campus ID[b]			23.43*	
	Poor Relationship with Principal	2.59	.88	8.74**	13.38
	Constant	-.08	.54	.02^	.92

Source	-2LL	Goodness of Fit X^2	*df*	Sig.	Nagelkerke R^2	Percent Correct
Model	169.88	.40	6	1.0	.29	71.8
Constant	206.01					53.0

Note: *p=.005; **p<005, ^p=.88; [a]Socialization variables includes years at campus, campus id, campus and team reviews policies, team meets and socializes, and relationship with principal; [b]individual campus data provides no discernable significance

Parameters of organizational socialization appeared to consistently have an impact on violation of standardized testing policies regardless of whether the questions were presented in a direct manner or in a scenario, analyzed independently or in combination with each other, or with grading policies. The years spent on a campus continued to indicate some degree, from 7% to 24%, of increased violation of academic polices. Lack of team collaboration suggests a violation factor increase of 23 when evaluated against direct question alone; when combined with grading policies, the factor dropped to 3.5.

Question 4

Q4: Is there evidence to suggest a relationship between values and the likelihood that teachers will engage in academic misconduct?

Question 4.1: Do teachers have the same types of values?

H_0*:* All teachers will not report the same type of values.

A frequency distribution (Figure 4.5) provided data on the values chosen as the most important at work to each respondent. Self-respect at 20.6% was the value most often chosen as the primary guiding principle for life at work. This value was followed closely by a sense of accomplishment with 16.8%, security with 15.5%, and being well respected at 15.5%. When categorized by type (Figure 4.6), 65.8% of teachers chose a fulfillment value as the most influential in their lives at work, while 34.2% chose a deficit value. The null was not rejected.

Question 4.2: Do teachers' values become more similar over time?

H_0*:* Teacher's values will not become more similar over time.

The resulting $p>.05$ suggested that the two were independent factors. The null was not rejected.

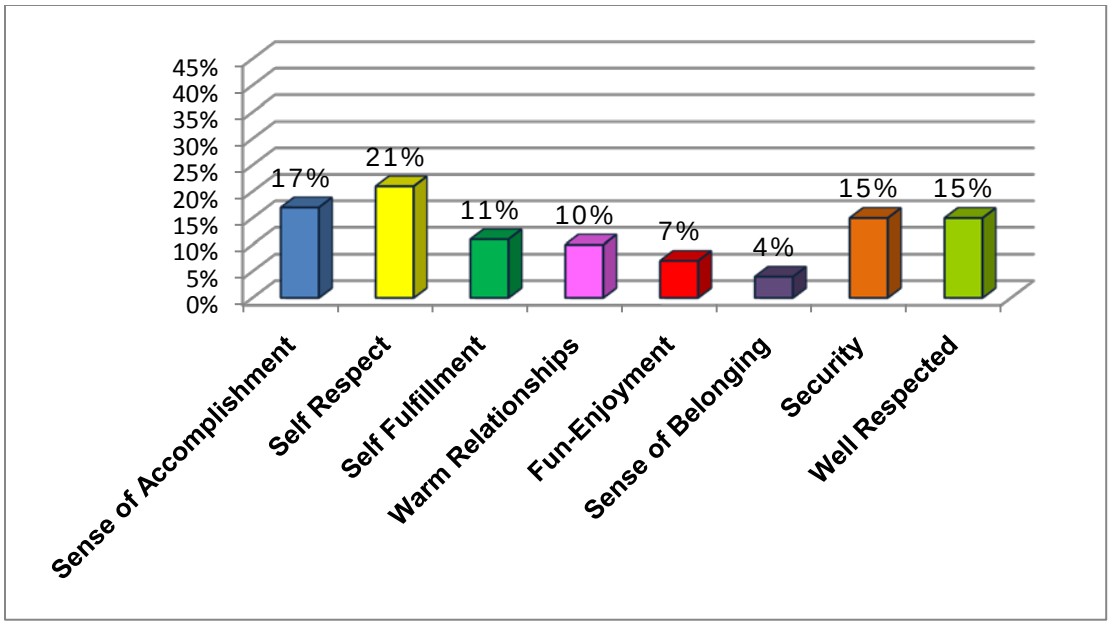

Figure 4.5. **Summary of Guiding Values at Work**

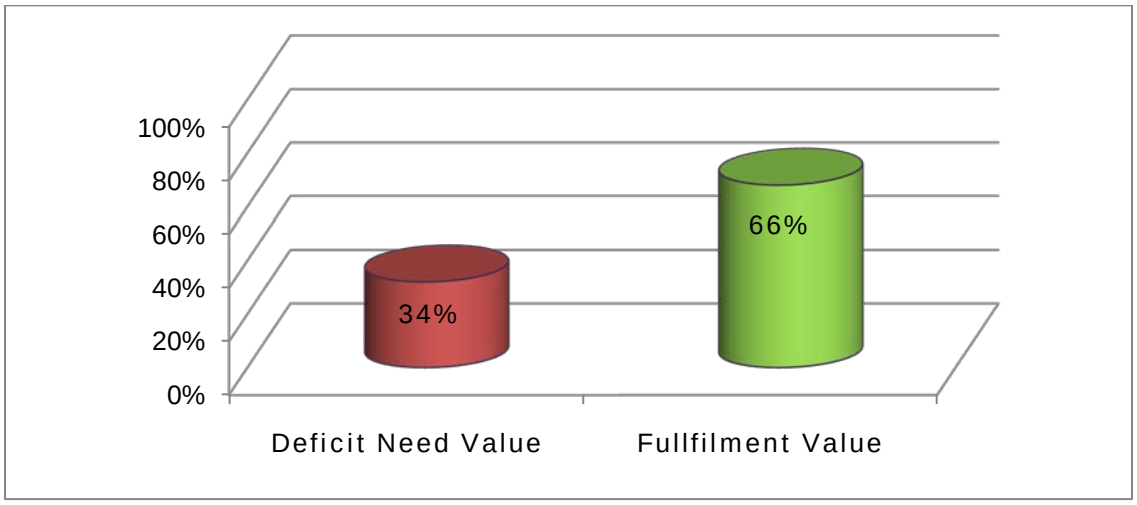

Figure 4.6. **Summary of Guiding Value Types at Work**

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Question 4.3: Is there a relationship between age, ethnicity, experience, and values types?

H_0*:* There is no relationship between age, ethnicity, experience and values types.

The resulting p>.05 suggested that the two were independent factors. The null was not rejected.

Question 4.4: Is there a relationship between self-efficacy and values?

H_0*:* There is no relationship between self-efficacy and values.

The resulting p>.05 suggested that the two were independent factors. The null was not rejected.

Question 4.5: Is there a relationship between types of values and academic misconduct?

H_0*:* There is no relationship between types of values and academic misconduct.

The resulting p>.05 suggested that the two were independent factors. The null was not rejected.

Question 4.5a: Is there a relationship between types of values and academic misconduct regarding grading policies?

H_0*:* There is no relationship between types of values and academic misconduct regarding grading policies

The resulting p>.05 suggested that the two were independent factors. The null was not rejected.

Question 4.5b: Is there a relationship between types of values and academic misconduct regarding testing policies?

H_0: There is no relationship between types of values and academic misconduct regarding testing policies.

In a crosstabs statistical test, value type was found to have a statistically significant relationship**,** (χ^2 (1) =5.12, α=.02), with a teacher's decision to violate testing policies. The null was rejected.

Question 5

Q5: Is there evidence to suggest a relationship between ethical frames and the likelihood that teachers will engage in academic misconduct?

Question 5.1: Is there a relationship between age, ethnicity, experience and ethical frames?

H_0: There is no relationship between age, ethnicity, experience and ethical frames

To conduct the analysis for this research question, the categories of ethical paradigm became the dependent variable. When used in multiple logistic regressions or chi square, the limited response in certain categories (Figure 4.7) resulted in violations of the parameters of nonparametric statistics; more than 20% of cells had expected values of less than 5 and some cells had expected values of 0. With these violations, the null was not rejected.

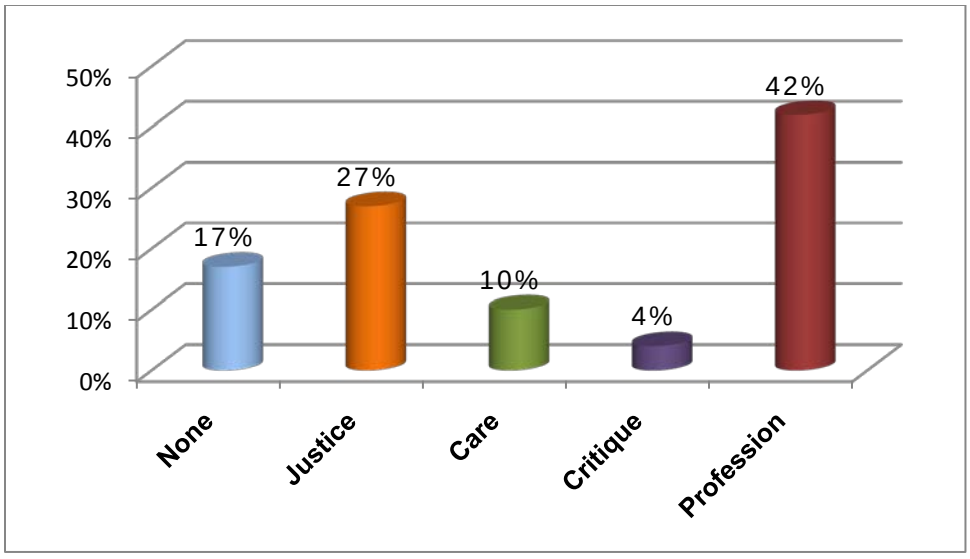

Figure 4.7. **Percent of Dominant Ethical Frames**

Question 5.2: Is there a relationship between violating grading policy and ethical frames?

H_0: There is no relationship between violating grading policy and ethical frames.

The resulting p>.05 suggested that the two were independent factors. The null was not rejected.

Question 5.3: Is there a relationship between violating high-stakes testing policy and ethical frames?

H_0: There is no relationship between violating high-stakes testing and ethical frames.

When dominant ethical frames were regressed on violation of high-stakes testing policies (Tables 4.11), a possible significance, (Wald (4) =29.86, $p < .01$) was revealed. The ethic of profession was designated as the baseline for the regression. The data appeared to suggest that people who subscribed to a paradigm other than that of profession had higher odds of violating high-stakes testing policy. The calculated range for the odds ratio factor,

Exp (β), ranged from almost 12 for those that had no identifiable ethical paradigm down to a low of approximately 3 for those that were guided by an ethic of justice.

Table 4.11
Regression Statistics for Violation of a Testing Policy with Ethical Frames

Source	Variable	β (logit)	SE	Wald	Exp(β)
Step 1	Dominant Ethical Frame			29.86^	
	No Dominant Frame	2.47	.50	24.35^	11.78
	Justice	1.08	.38	7.82**	2.94
	Care	1.72	.57	9.06***	5.60
	Critique	2.03	.88	5.37*	7.63
	Constant	-1.12	.26	17.83^	.33

		Goodness of Fit			Nagelkerke	Percent
Source	-2LL	X^2	*df*	Sig.	R^2	Correct
Model	221.75	.00	3	1.0	.23	68.3
Constant	257.08					53.2

Note: *p<.05, **p = .005; ***p<.005, ^p=.0001

When the dependent variable included the data for those who indicated violating high-stakes testing policies both when asked directly and when presented in a scenario, the statistical values, Table 4.12, were altered slightly. Those teachers for which no dominant ethical paradigm could be detected as compared to those who exhibited an ethic of profession, appeared to have the highest odds ratio of violating policy, followed by those guided by an ethic of critique, then ethic of care, and finally by those displaying an ethic of justice.

Table 4.12

Regression Statistics for Violation of Multiple Testing[a] Policies with Ethical Frames

Source	Variable	β (logit)	SE	Wald	Exp(β)
Step 1	Dominant Ethical Frame			26.39^	
	No Dominant Frame	2.62	.58	20.65^	13.79
	Justice	1.09	.44	6.24**	2.98
	Care	1.84	.62	8.68***	6.27
	Critique	2.53	1.16	4.78*	12.53
	Constant	-1.14	.30	14.83^	.32

		Goodness of Fit			Nagelkerke	Percent
Source	-2LL	X^2	*df*	Sig.	R^2	Correct
Model	172.62	.00	3	1.0	.26	69.6
Constant	204.74					52.7

Note: Note: *p<.05, **p = .01; ***p<.005, ^p=.0001; [a]Respondents indicated violating testing policies both when asked directly and when asked in a scenario

Question 5.4: Is there a relationship between values and ethical frames?

H_0: There is no relationship between values and ethical frames.

The resulting distribution violated the assumptions of nonparametric tests by having more than 20% of the cells with expectant values less than 5. The null was not rejected.

Question 5.5: Is there a relationship between self-efficacy and ethical paradigm?

H_0: There is no relationship between self-efficacy and ethical frames.

The resulting distribution violated the assumptions of nonparametric tests by having more than 20% of the cells with expectant values less than 5. The null was not rejected.

Question 6

Q6: Is there evidence to suggest that a relationship between social adaptation theory and the likelihood that teachers will engage in academic misconduct?

Question 6.1: Is there a relationship between types of values, ethical frames, organizational socialization, and academic misconduct?

H_0: There is no relationship between types of values, ethical frames, organizational socialization, and academic misconduct.

Table 4.13
Regression Statistics for the Parameters of Social Adaptation Theory

Source	Variable	β (logit)	SE	Wald	Exp(β)
Step 3	Dominant Ethical Frame			25.22^	
	No Dominant Frame	2.41	.56	18.50^	11.17
	Justice	.99	.44	4.30*	2.51
	Care	1.78	.61	8.59***	5.98
	Critique	3.01	1.16	6.73**	20.26
	Value	.89	.39	5.15*	2.44
	Poor Principal Relationship	2.12	.88	5.79*	8.36
	Constant	-1.59	.33	21.92^	.25

Source	-2LL	Goodness of Fit			Nagelkerke	Percent
		X^2	*df*	Sig.	R^2	Correct
Model	176.41	1.98	6	.921	.32	70.6
Constant	220.58					54.4

Note: *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.005, ^p=.0001

This culminating inferential question appeared to produce significant results (Table 4.13) for both ethical paradigm (Wald (4) =25.22, $p < .001$) and types of values (Wald (1) =5.16, $p = .02$). The reduction of the -2LL from 220.58 to 176.41 suggested a model that provided an improved fit to the data. The apparent improvement was also supported by the increase in the percentage of cases that were correctly classified by the model as compared to the constant; 70.6% to 54.4%. Finally, the Nagelkerke value of 0.32 inferred that this model informed 32% of the variance between a teacher reporting a violating or conforming action in regard to academic policies. The possible interpretation of the data would suggest that teachers who subscribed to an ethic of critique were 20 times more likely to violate an

academic policy than a teacher guided by an ethic of profession. Teachers for which no dominant ethical paradigm could be determined were over 11 times more likely to violate polices. Individuals who sought deficit values appeared to be twice as likely to participate in academic misconduct as those who strove for fulfillment values. Finally, teachers indicating a poor relationship with their principal were 8 times more likely to violate policies than those reporting a good relationship with their principal.

Summary

The data analysis seemingly produced empirical evidence supporting the existence of relationships between the theoretical frames of this study and teacher's self-reported behavior in respect to academic misconduct (See Table 4.14). In some incidences, the small sample size produced violations of the assumptions of nonparametric statistical tests, thus hindering deeper analysis of the data. However, even though this was a relatively small study, evidence emerged aligning to the contentions of Cizek (1999) along with Fine & Frone (2004) that individuals would self-report misconduct. Also in alignment were the works of previous studies indicating the responding teachers would self-report academic misconduct and their actions would be influenced by age, organizational socialization (Brown, 2000; Sims, 1994; van Gigch, 2006), values (Rokeach, 1973; Feather, 1975; Kahle, 1983), and ethical frames (Kahle, 1983; Shapiro & Stefkovich, 2005). There also seemed to be evidence that the misconduct of the responding teachers could be informed by the parameters of social adaptation theory. Further discussion of the data analysis and findings are presented in the next chapter.

Table 4.14
Summary of Analysis

Question	Hypothesis	Accept/ Reject null hypothesis	Factors of Significance
1	***There is no evidence to suggest that teachers engage in academic misconduct?***	Reject	See sub-questions
1.1	Teachers will report that they do not violate academic policies.	Reject	90% report some type of violation
1.2	Teachers will report equally on the two parameters of academic dishonesty.	Reject	72% reported a violation of a scenario; 58% reported a violation to a direct question.
1.3	Teachers will report equally on the two parameters of academic dishonesty.	Reject	78% reported violating a grading policy; 48% reported violating a testing policy
1.4	Teachers will report equally on the two parameters of academic dishonesty.	Reject	Type of Preparation; Grade & subject level taught; Campus
1.5	There is no relationship between age, ethnicity and experience on academic misconduct.	Reject	Age
2	***There is no evidence to suggest a relationship between self-efficacy and the likelihood that teachers will engage in academic misconduct?***		
2.1	All responding teachers do not believe they can teach all children.	Reject	92% believe
2.2	All responding teachers do not believe they can teach all children to mastery.	Reject	52% believe
2.3	There is no significant difference in the number of teachers that believe they can teach all children and the number that believe they can teach all children to mastery.	Reject	$X^2(1)=14.24$ $\alpha< .001$
2.4	There is no relationship between self-efficacy and a teacher's choice to violate grading policy.	Reject	$X^2(1)=14.24$ $\alpha< .001$
2.5	There is no relationship between self-efficacy and a teacher's choice to violate high-stakes testing policy.	Failed to Reject	
2.6	There is no relationship between self-efficacy and a teaching assignment.	Reject	% at-risk
3	Is there evidence to suggest a relationship between organizational socialization and the likelihood that teachers will engage in academic misconduct?	Reject	
3.1	There is no relationship between organizational socialization and a teacher's choice to violate grading policy.	Reject	Experience at campus; collaboration
3.2	There is no relationship between organizational socialization and a teacher's choice to violate high-stakes testing policies.	Reject	Assigned campus; experience at campus; collaboration; relationship with principal

Table 4.14
Continued

Question	Hypothesis	Accept/ Reject null hypothesis	Factors of Significance
4	***Is there evidence to suggest a relationship between values and the likelihood that teachers will engage in academic misconduct?***		
4.1	All responding teachers will not report the same type of values.	Reject	% vary
4.2	Teacher's values will not become more similar over time.	Failed to Reject	
4.3	There is no relationship between age, ethnicity, experience and values types.	Failed to Reject	
4.4	There is no relationship between self-efficacy and values.	Failed to Reject	
4.5	There is no relationship between types of values and academic misconduct.	Failed to Reject	
4.5a	There is no relationship between types of values and academic misconduct regarding grading policies	Reject	$X^2(1)=5.12$ $\alpha< .02$
4.5b	There is no relationship between types of values and academic misconduct regarding testing policies.	Reject	$X^2(1)=5.12$ $\alpha< .02$
5	**Is there evidence to suggest a relationship between ethical frames and the likelihood that teachers will engage in academic misconduct?**		
5.1	There is no relationship between age, ethnicity, experience and ethical frames	Failed to Reject	Violation of nonparametric assumptions
5.2	There is no relationship between violating grading policy and ethical frames.	Failed to Reject	Violation of nonparametric assumptions
5.3	There is no relationship between violating high-stakes testing and ethical frames.	Reject	None>Critique>Care> Justice> Profession
5.4	There is no relationship between values and ethical frames.	Failed to Reject	Violation of nonparametric assumptions
5.5	There is no relationship between self-efficacy and ethical frames.	Reject	None>Critique>Care> Justice> Profession
6	Does social adaptation theory inform academic misconduct?	Reject	
6.1	There is no relationship between types of values, ethical frames, organizational socialization, and academic misconduct.	Reject	Ethical Paradigm: None>Critique>Care> Justice> Profession Value Type: Deficit> Fulfillment Relationship with Principal: Poor>Good

CHAPTER V

FINDINGS, IMPLICATIONS, AND CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

Conducted in a context of high stakes accountability, this study sought to more fully understand factors that contribute to teachers' decisions to participate in academic dishonesty. From the literature, it was noted that academic dishonesty is a long standing dilemma (Davis et al., 1992; Ferrell & Daniel, 1995; Whitely, 1998) with broad-reaching participation (Bruhn et al., 2002; Cummings et al., 2002; Ferrell & Daniel, 1995; Hamilton, 2006). Even though the group of most interest to this study, public K-12 teachers, was never specifically named in the reviewed literature, the studies by Davy et al. (2007) and Lovett-Hooper et al. (2007) provided a strong indication of their probable participation. A rationale for their participation in academic misconduct seemed to be embedded in the components of self efficacy (Evans & Craig, 1990; Finn & Frone, 2004; Murdock et al., 2001; Schab, 1991), values (Begley, 1996; Rokeach, 1973), ethical frames (Sims, 1994; van Gigch, 2003), and organizational socialization (Bruhn et al., 2002; Kelley et al., 2006; McCabe, 2005). These components are captured in social adaptation theory (Homer & Kahle, 1988; Kahle, 1983) and were used to frame this study.

It was intended that this quantitative inquiry would help fill two apparent voids in the research: one that extended academic dishonesty research to elementary teachers and a second that provided an empirical link between academic dishonesty (Cizek, 1999; Cummings et al., 2002; Finn & Frone, 2004; McCabe, 1999; McCabe et al., 2001) and the constructs of social adaptation theory (Kahle, 1983). In an attempt to accomplish this objective, categorical data analysis techniques (Agresti, 2007) were used to examine and

interpret the empirical data collected through a self-administered survey instrument completed by elementary teachers from a suburban K-12 school district.

Thus this final chapter has three objectives: (1) to interpret the research findings, (2) to suggest implications from the findings, (3) and to offer recommendations into future research.

Research Findings

Participation. To begin, this study sought to establish if teachers would possibly participate in academic dishonesty. The literature review revealed several empirical studies addressing the academic misconduct of students and of college professors (Davis et al., 1992; Ferrell & Daniel, 1995; Whitely, 1998). While there were reports of teachers violating academic policies (Bruhn et al., 2002; Evetts, 2006; Storm & Storm, 2007), there were no readily available empirical data to support that teacher would participate in academic misconduct. This void appeared to be filled by this study's base line response to academic misconduct. This response indicated 90% of the participants study self-reported to have violated an academic policy. Thus, as had been suggested by Cizek (1999), as well as Finn & Frone (2004), individuals would self-report violations of academic misconduct. Also, the percentage of respondents that reported violations appeared to give initial supporting evidence that teachers, like students in the studies by Davis et al. (1992), Ferrell & Daniel (1995), and Whitely (1998), would participate in academic misconduct.

Further, both Kahle (1983) and Rokeach (1973) stated that individuals acted or made decisions in a contextual environment. This concept is important in the structure of this study. It suggests parameters other than simple policy knowledge come into play when a

teacher is faced with an academic misconduct decision. The findings in this inquiry seemed to support the positive influence of a contextual environment.

This study found that approximately 14% more of the participants (72% to 58%) reported an action that was in violation of a policy when the question was presented in a scenario rather than when presented as a question void of situational context (Examples of these two types of questions can be viewed from the survey in Appendix A). The data indicated the difference increased to 30% when the survey addressed different types of academic policies: 78% indicated an action that violated a local grading policy while 48% reported an action that violated a standardized (local or state) testing policy. These outcomes seemed to suggest a relationship between this study and the research by Kahle (1983) and Rokeach (1973) indicating decisions were made in context.

Secondly, as there are more autonomous and more frequent opportunities to violate grading policies than to violate testing policies, these results could be interpreted as aligning with research (McCabe et al., 1999) stating students were more likely to cheat if given the opportunity. A third interpretation could be made with previous research showing violations to be inversely related to sanctions (McCabe et al., 1999). As applied to teachers, sanctions for violating a grading policy could range from no consequence to loss of contract, and the sanction for violation of a testing policy could result in loss of certification or professional credentials. Thus, the sanction for violating a state academic policy (loss of career) was potentially much higher than that of violating a local policy (loss of current job).

These three findings seem to insert an empirical thread into the academic dishonesty literature. These results suggest that when given the circumstances and opportunity, teachers, like students and professors, would participate in academic dishonesty.

After establishing teachers would self-report violations of academic policies, and would more readily violate grading policies than testing policies, this study sought factors that would possibly influence these irrational actions. Several such influences surfaced and are discussed below.

The Influence of Personal Characteristics. In the analysis of a teacher's personal characteristic such as age, ethnicity, and teaching experience on academic misconduct, only age surfaced as a significant influence. From the indications of previous studies (Cizek, 1999; McCabe et al., 1999), the emergence of age as a contributing factor was not surprising. The unexpected finding was the emerging relationship between age and policy violation. The referenced studies (Cizek, 1999; McCabe et al., 1999), indicated the incidences of cheating increased until high school and then began to decrease. Following with this information, one would expect older teachers to be less likely to violate policies. Yet, according to the current data (Table 4.4), there appeared to be a linear progression in which increased age corresponded with increased probability of policy violation. Without some indication from the academic dishonesty literature or specific information from the study, one is left to interpret these outcomes utilizing change research (Fullan, 2002; Guskey, 1984; Guskey, 2002; James, 1890; Zimmerman, 2006) or a practitioner's view.

Using these two lens, it could be possible older teachers appeared to violate academic policies more readily because they resented the changes brought about by NCLB. For instance, if their current teaching practices did not produce student results in alignment with the mandates of NCLB, these teachers may have found it easier to violate policies than to change their practices. It is also possible older teachers violated policies because they had less concern for sanctions. Perhaps these teachers had repeatedly witnessed the threat but no

application of sanctions. With this repeated lack of action, perhaps older teachers tended to disregard professed consequences. Another possibility was perhaps older teachers had a disdain for the current structure of high stakes accountability (Zimmerman, 2006) and based on their principles or ethical frames, especially the ethic of care or critique, were consciously willing to violate the policies.

Another possible, and highly probable, interpretation would have suggested mature teachers have been exposed to a large number of policy changes during their teaching career. After many changes and modifications, these teachers may have lost sight of the current policy. Even though all responding teachers indicated a complete knowledge and understanding of state and local academic policies, these older teachers may not realize their actions are in violation. Regardless of the reasoning, it remained counter-intuitive, and somewhat counter to the literature, that older teachers would be more likely to violate policies than younger teachers.

After reveling possible influences of personal characteristics, the study results pointed to individuals' professional characteristics as influential in academic misconduct decisions.

Influence of Professional Characteristics. Professional characteristics were identified as attributes associated with the very nature of teaching such as grade level, subject, and method of certification. This study's findings seemed to suggest teaching assignment and certification program exerted an influence on policy violations. The captured influences varied depending if the dependent variable was grading policy or testing policy. The parameters of grade level assignment and type of certification program appeared to have an influence on local policy violation, while only grade level assignment appeared to influence testing violations.

Teachers violating the local late work policy indicated a refusal to apply grade penalties for work received passed the stated deadline. Specifically, teachers of second grade, fourth grade, and NCLB evaluated subjects reported higher incidences of violating this policy by accepting late work with no grade penalty. A rationale for this finding looks at the nature and curriculum of the indicated grade levels. Second grade is often the first experience students have with homework and graded assignments. Teacher of this grade may be influenced by the ethical frames of care or critique and therefore forgo grading penalties. This violation of local policy may be temporary until students become accustomed to the structure and process of homework. In the state of Texas, fourth grade curriculum focuses heavily on the writing process. Teachers in this grade may feel that arbitrary deadlines impeded good writing and ignore grading penalties for work turned in past a deadline. Teachers of subjects evaluated by NCLB, such as math and English, are encouraged to be more focused on ensuring students meet academic standards than timelines (Reeves, 2004). As such, these teachers may see the late work policy as a negative influence on learning. In each of these incidences, it could be suggested that policy violation is the result of teachers employing their experience and professional judgment to best provide for student learning. This rational could also explain the appearance of teachers from alternative certification (ACP) programs to be less likely to violate this policy than teachers from college based certification programs. As a recent certification phenomenon, ACP teachers have less experience upon which to make professional judgments. In the absence of such experience, these teachers seemed to have been more likely to follow policies as written.

When violations of standardized testing policies were evaluated in relation to professional factors, only grade level assignment appeared to have an influence. Under this

category, kindergarten and first grade teachers indicated significantly higher incidences of violation than 5th grade teachers. Even though they indicated violations, it was highly probable that these teachers may not have been presented the opportunity to violate testing policies. In the surveyed elementary schools, test administration was generally carried out by the teachers of the grade level tested. Neither kindergarten nor first grade students were evaluated under NCLB, thus neither kindergarten nor first grade teachers had an opportunity to violate testing policies. It was still important to note that all respondents included in the data analysis indicated a thorough knowledge of all academic policies. With the suggestion that teachers in the lower grades would be more likely to violate testing policies, it appeared these teachers did not attend to policies that were not pertinent to them or their students.

Influence of Self-efficacy. Self-efficacy was the next component evaluated. This parameter appeared to produce some enlightening information, and it also appeared to present results that were counter to expectation.

Several literature scholars (Bandura, 1977; Evans & Craig, 1990; Finn & Frone, 2004; Murdock et al., 2001) suggested self-efficacy would be a factor in decisions to violate academic policies. Bandura (1977) provided evidence that self-efficacy was a contributor to an individual's actions. In 2001, Murdock, Hale, & Weber reported an inverse relationship between academic self-efficacy and cheating. Self-efficacy was also shown in the Finn & Frone (2004) study to have a significant influence on a student's decision to cheat; 0.15 standard deviation increase in cheating per unit standard deviation decrease in self-efficacy.

For this study, a teacher's self-efficacy was operationally defined as a teacher's belief in his or her ability to teach all children. To align with the context of NCLB, it was further subdivided in two ways. The first subdivision analyzed one's belief in ability to teach all

children when basic characteristics, such as the ability to speak English or grade level performance, of the student were specified. The second subdivision used the same parameters of the first subdivision, but asked teachers of their belief in their ability to teach all children to mastery. A teacher's self-efficacy for mastery teaching was used as a measure of the increased pressure teachers feel as a result of mandates of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001.

The frequency data revealed almost all teachers, 92%, reported a belief in their ability to teach all children. When it was specified that the child spoke English, the self-efficacy percentage rose to 95%. If it was further added that the child entered the teacher's class on grade level, 99% gave an affirmative self-efficacy response.

When evaluating a teacher's self-efficacy to teach all children to mastery, a significant difference emerged. Only 52% of the responding teachers reported a positive belief in their ability to teach all students to mastery. Yet, the percentage rose to 59% and 90% respectively when it was specified that the students in question spoke English and entered class on grade level.

Even with high percentages of teachers responding to the study survey expressing a lack of self-efficacy, this parameter did not appear to influence teachers' actions to violate academic policies. When the influence of one's teaching assignment on self-efficacy was evaluated through logistic regression, only the percent of at-risk students enrolled on the campus (Wald (1) = 4.34, p=.04) contributed to the model. It seemed apparent that responding teacher's self-efficacy was influenced by student attributes. Yet, when factors of self-efficacy and academic misconduct were investigated, the two were found to be independent (p> .05) of one another. Thus, there appeared to be no connection to previous

research (Bandura, 1977; Finn & Frone, 2004; Murdock et al., 2001) that suggested a reduction in self-efficacy would be reflected by an increase in the likelihood one would engage in academic misconduct.

It was very interesting that the findings of this study indicated many teachers would express concern for their ability to teach children to the level mandated by NCLB, but that concern did not appear to manifest itself as a contributor to policy violation. However, a closer look at the percentage of teachers who indicated a lack of self-efficacy to teach all students to mastery (48%) compared to the percentage to teach students on grade level (10%) did strongly suggest that responding teachers felt inadequately prepared or questioned their ability to accelerate a student's learning. With this finding, it is of little wonder students who fall behind their peers have difficulty catching up because these findings suggested teachers did not believe in their own ability to facilitate such learning.

As suggested by Getzels and Guba's (1957) social system model, actions are influences by both the individual and the organization. Therefore, after examining influences that rested with the individual teacher, the study turned to examine influences associated with the organization.

Influence of Organizational Socialization. Parameters of organizational socialization (Brown, 2000; Evans & Craig, 1990; Finn & Frone, 2004; McCabe, 2005; Murdock et al., 2001; Sims, 1994; van Gigch, 2006) were reported in the literature to impact behaviors. In this study, organizational socialization seemed to present several factors that appeared to influence academic misconduct. Those factors included term of employment, collaboration, and principal relationships.

Specific to terms of employment, the findings from this study suggested the longer a teacher taught at a given campus, the more likely the teacher was to violate an academic policy. As discussed earlier with the influence of age (Tables 4.3 & 4.4), this finding seems counter-intuitive as one would expect more mature and experienced teachers to be role models who consistently followed all policies with fidelity. This expectation was not born out in the data from this inquiry (Table 4.6 & 4.7). Congruent with the influence of age, perhaps the longer one was employed at a campus, the more protection from outside sanctions one felt. Also, as discussed with age, teachers that had remained at a given campus for a long period of time might not have taken notice of changes or modifications in academic policy. The committed violations might simply be a failure to internalize current policy stipulations.

A second suggested influence of organizational socialization was collaboration (Tables 4.6- 4.9). Reviewed studies (Bruhn et al., 2002; Evans & Craig, 1990; Finn & Frone, 2004; McCabe, 2005; Murdock et al., 2001) discussed the importance of social relationships and culture on a student's choices. These studies professed students were more likely to cheat if they lacked aspects of social relationships and collaboration. In this study, whether analyzed school wide or among team members, lack of collaboration seemed to align to previous works (Bruhn et al., 2002; Evans & Craig, 1990; McCabe, 2005; Murdock et al., 2001) and emerged as an apparent indicator of policy violation. When a teacher in this study reported the campus lacked a collaborative environment, the teacher had a log odds ratio of violating grading policies greater than three times that of teachers reporting collaborative campus environments (Table 4.6). When the collaboration factor was analyzed in regard to violating a testing policy, the probability that a teacher would affirm a violation was just over

23 times (Table 4.10) greater than the probability the teacher response would indicate a behavior upholding the policy. Also indicated in this study, teachers reporting that their academic team did not review polices appeared to have been three times (Table 4.8) more likely to violate both a grading and a testing policy. This same factor predicted teachers were ten times (Table 4.7) more likely to violate than to not violate a testing policy.

With such potentially strong implications for the effects of collaboration, it appears that the effects of personal and professional factors on academic misconduct could possibly be eliminated or reduced if the campus exhibited a strong collaborative environment. In terms of the Getzels' & Guba's (1957) model, campus, but especially team, collaboration should be infused within the nomothetic component of role expectation. With a focus on collaboration, an apparent positive influence on behavior, perhaps the educational community could reduce the reliance on the threat of sanctions to encourage academic policy compliance.

In addition to collaboration, a teacher's reported relationship with the principal was another organizational factor suggested to influence teachers' decisions when interacting with testing policies (Table 4.10). This factor appeared to have an inverse relationship; poor interactions with the principal coincided with increased reports of policy violations. This finding seemed to correspond with the influence of the student-teacher relationship discussed in the 2004 study of Finn & Frone. From this data, responding teachers which reported a poor relationship with the campus principal may have felt extreme pressure to ensure students preformed well. They may have felt the best way to prevent further deterioration of the relationship was to take any action necessary to ensure student test results were at a mastery level. Secondly, often teachers reporting a poor relationship with their campus administrator

will also report feeling a lack of physical or emotional support from the administrator. Due to such feelings, the teacher may have abdicated responsibility for irrational actions and transferred blame to the administrator.

The outcomes from this section tended to support the theoretical suppositions of organizational socialization presented by Bruhn et al.,(2002), Davis et al., (1992), Kelley et al., (2006), Meyer et al, 2004), McCabe (2005), and Sims (1994). They highlighted how organizational socialization practices which create positive relationships and collaborative environments can possibly work to curtail policy violations. The more teachers reported that their teams worked together, that they reviewed policies, and that they maintained positive relationships with their principal, the more likely (Tables 4.9-4.10) the responding teachers were to follow established policies with fidelity. Socialization process, such as collaboration, could also be a catalyst to the value alignment suggested by Rokeach (1973) and Rosenberg (1957). Next, the bearing values seem to have on actions will be discussed.

Influence of Values. The influence of values was a third factor evaluated in this study. The literature (Rokeach, 1973) suggested that members of a given profession would have similar guiding values. This suggestion did not seem to hold in the current study. For in this inquiry, there was no one value that was chosen by a majority of respondents; however, a majority (65.2%) did select fulfillment type values over deficit need type values. The work by Kahle (1983) would indicate that the majority (65.2%) of the responding teachers had positive adaptive strategies and an internal locus of control. In contrast, yet still using the Kahle (1983) work, one would deduce that the other 34.8% of the responding teachers would not have developed positive adaptive strategies and would have an external locus of control.

Continuing to follow Kahle's rationale, this group of teachers would probably be more likely to violate academic policies.

The literature (Rokeach, 1973) also indicated that the guiding value selected by members of a profession would become more similar over time, again that finding was not reflected ($p > .05$) in this study. It is unclear if this finding was the result of the sample size, of misaligned survey questions, or a design flaw in this study. Future expanded studies should reveal an answer to this quandary.

This study also did not seem to reflect, as suggested by the literature (Begley, 1996; Rokeach, 1973; Rosenberg, 1957), an association of values ($p > .05$) with several other considered factors such as age, ethnicity, experience, self-efficacy, nor with violation of grading policies. Again, until more expansive studies are conducted, it is unclear if these results were a reflection of this theoretical frame or a reflection of the failure to meet all test assumptions (Agresti, 2007; Mertler & Vannatta, 2005) of non-parametric statistical analysis. A parameter found to have statistical significance was the relationship between value types and a teacher's decision to violate testing policies. Teachers, reportedly guided by deficit values, expressed violating actions more often than anticipated. This finding parallels the expectation (Rokeach, 1973) that those with an external locus of control would be more likely to violate policies.

From values, this discussion moved to another closely associated factor, ethical frames.

Influence of Ethical Frames. Ethical frames have been defined as an individual's world view (van Gigch, 2003). In reference to ethical frames, Lincoln and Guba (1985, p.15) stated "As we think, so do we act" (p.15). Parallel to this literature, the results from the

current inquiry seemed to indicate most teachers (83%) made decisions based on a dominant ethical frame. Frequency analysis revealed that 42% of the responding teachers reported being guided by the ethic of profession (Faircloth, 2004; Shapiro & Stefkovich, 2005; Stefkovich. 2006), 27% by the ethic of justice (Blumenfeld-Jones, 2004; Faircloth, 2004; Furman, 2003; Shapiro & Gross, 2008; Stefkovich, 2006), 10% by the ethic of care (Blumenfeld-Jones, 2004; Enomoto, 1997; Noddings, 1984), and 4% by the ethic of critique (Freire, 1970; Furman, 2003; McCray & Beachum, 2006); Stefkovich, 2006), and the remaining 17% did not appear to have a guiding ethical paradigm. The limited number of respondents choosing the ethic of care or the ethic of critique as their guiding ethical frame prevented this study from using one's dominate ethical frame as a dependent variable; to do so violated the assumptions of nonparametric statistics (Agresti, 2007; Mertler & Vannatta, 2005). Yet when ethical frames were utilized as the independent variable and academic misconduct the dependent variable, the assumptions of non parametric tests (Agresti, 2007; Mertler & Vannatta, 2005) were met and significance was calculated (Tables 4.11 & 4.12). Through logistic regression analysis (Agresti, 2007), ethical frames appeared to have had a statistical impact on a respondent's choice to violate testing policies. When compared to the ethic of profession (Faircloth, 2004; Shapiro & Stefkovich, 2005; Stefkovich. 2006), the most popular dominate ethical frame, the teachers that prescribed to one of the other frames showed a seemingly higher probability (see Table 4.12 for the specifics) for violating testing policy. The model developed accounted for 26% of the variance between a teacher's decisions to violate a testing policy or to not violate a testing policy. This finding seemed to have had a clear indication of the strong influence an ethical frame had on a teacher's actions. It appeared if teachers were able to call upon a multi-dimensional frame, such as

profession, they were more likely to make rational decisions than if they relied on a single dimensional frame. Shapiro & Stefkovich (2005), Simms (1994), and Starratt (1991) implied such ability could be taught. This further suggests in context of this study, academic misconduct could be reduced through professional learning focused on the application of multidimensional ethical frames. This suggestion coincides with the similar findings presented by Kahle (1983) in his work in the marketing arena.

The previous sections four sections have analyzed the factors of self-efficacy, organizational socialization, values, and ethical frames independently. The next section analyzed the manner in which these factors operated interdependently as suggested by social adaptation theory (Kahle, 1983).

Influence of Social Adaptation Theory. Finally, the influence of social adaptation theory was examined. Kahle (1983) stated that the parameters of social adaptation theory (values, ethical frames, and organizational socialization) functioned interdependently and were influential in guiding the behaviors of individuals. The findings from the analysis of this final theoretical frame seem to substantially support Kahle's (1983) statement. Even though the parameters (values, organizational socialization, and ethical frames) showed a significant result when evaluated independently (Table 4.5 – Table 4.12), their contribution to the regression model was elevated when considered in unison (Table 4.13). Specifically, when academic misconduct (violation of testing policy) was analyzed in light of the parameters of social adaptation theory, organizational socialization, values, and ethical frames were significant contributors to the model. This interdependent model accounted for 32% of the variance (Table 4.13) between teachers that acknowledge a violation and those that did not. This finding suggests that social adaptation research from the marketing arena

(Homer & Kahle, 1988; Kahle, 1983) can transcend into the education realm. It also empirical provides an indication of the complexity of the decision process.

Summary of Findings. From a general perspective, this study appeared to have: (a) supported the chosen theoretical frames and added to the literature on academic dishonesty; (b) added empirical data that allowed social adaptation theory to transcend from the business and marketing environment (Homer & Kahle, 1988; Kahle, 1983) into the educational environment; and (c) identified factors that influenced a teacher's decision to violate academic policies.

Through the data analysis, it appeared that ethical frames and values influenced teacher actions more than had been anticipated from the literature review. Therefore, the original proposed balance interaction of the theoretical frames (Figure 2.2) was refined to suggest the removal of self-efficacy and the stronger influence of values and ethical frames (Figure 5.1).

It is interesting to note, according to the findings and the work of Shapiro & Stefkovich (2005), Simms (1994), and Starratt (1991), parameters of organizational socialization can be used to influence the effects of values and ethical frames. More specifically, collaboration appeared to clarify role expectations and unify values among teachers. This unification appeared to positively influence teacher actions. Also, Shapiro & Stefkovich (2005) suggested individuals could be taught to utilize a multidimensional ethical frame such as the ethic of profession. This frame appeared to support decisions which adhered to academic policies.

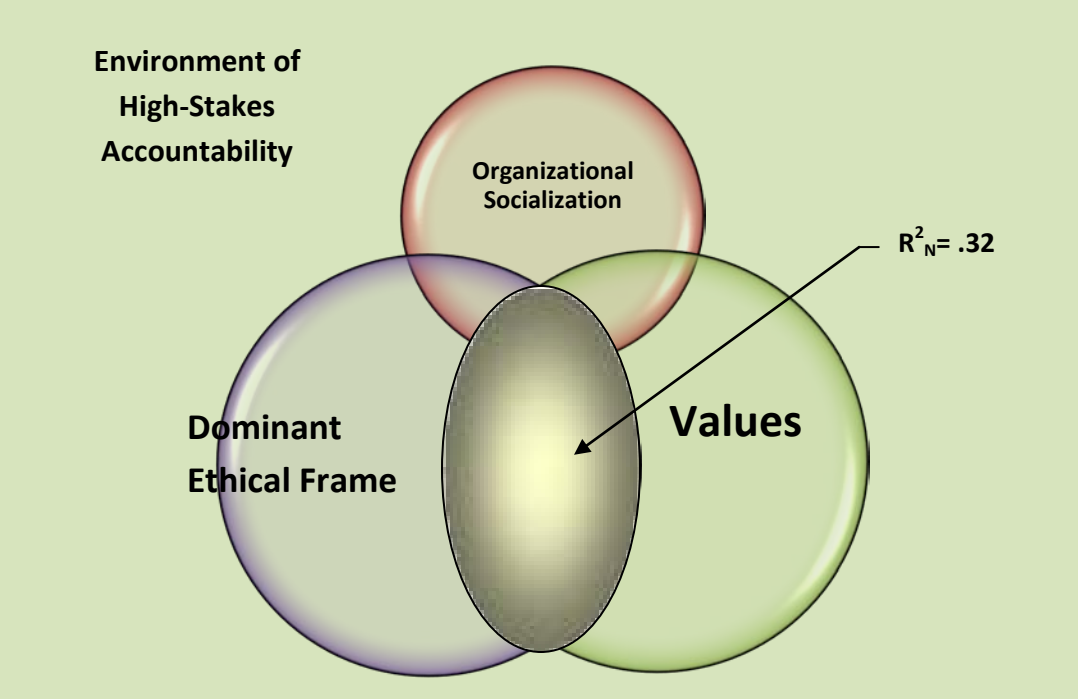

Figure 5.1. **Empirical Interaction of Components**

Implications

As an exploratory study, this inquiry sought to: (1) possibly fill a void in the literature which linked public elementary teachers to academic dishonesty, and (2) to make empirical connections between academic dishonesty (Cizek, 1999; Cummings et al., 2002; Finn & Frone, 2004; McCabe, 1999; McCabe et al., 2001) and the constructs of social adaptation theory (Kahle, 1983). Responses generated from a self administered survey instrument were examined by using frequency and logistic regression applications within the SPSS software. Data analysis revealed several implications. These implications, presented separately for both the researcher and the practitioner, will begin with a look at the theoretical side.

Theoretical/ Academic Implications. From a theoretical perspective, this study appeared to add parallel data and add support to several points expressed in the academic dishonesty literature. The findings suggest, as in previous studies with students (Cizek, 1999; Cummings et al., 2002; Ferrell & Daniel, 1995) and professors (Bruhn et al., 2002; Cummings et al., 2002; Hamilton, 2006), elementary teachers would engage in academic misconduct. Again, as in previous studies (Finn & Frone, 2004), when using a self-administered survey instrument, elementary teachers apparently readily admitted to violating both local and state academic policies; 78% reported violating a local grading policy, 47% reported violating standardized testing policies, and 90% reported violating one or the other. Thus it appeared that teachers, as with students (Cizek, 1999; Cummings et al., 2002; Ferrell & Daniel, 1995; Finn, & Frone, 2004; McCabe, 1999; McCabe et al., 2001) did engage in academic misconduct and as previously reported by Muijs (2004), self-administered survey instruments were an effective manner to collect this type of information.

Another point that appeared to be mirrored in this study was the impact of pressure (Booher-Jennings, 2005; O'Neill, 2003) on actions of misconduct. The degree to which a teacher would participate in academic misconduct seemed to be influenced, as in previous studies (Evans & Craig, 1990; Schab, 1991), by pressures of success. This contention was evidenced through the increased (12%) probability of policy violation by teachers that had a close association with students evaluated under state testing and NCLB (Table 4.1). A third alignment to previous findings regarding pressure was the apparent pressure created by the fear of failure (Murdock et al., 2001). This fear and resulting action was reflected by the inverse relationship between a teacher's reported self-efficacy and violation of testing policies when working with a high percentage of at-risk students (Table 4.5).

A suggested fourth connection to the literature was the impact of positive organizational socialization (See Tables 4.6 - 4.10). Teachers who reportedly felt a connection with the organization, as demonstrated by collaboration and relationships with the principal, like students that felt connected to a school, seemed less likely to violate policies. When the organization demonstrated a culture of reinforcing guiding principles (such as adhering to academic policies) through team and campus meetings, teachers appeared less likely to indicate that they violated policies. These findings parallel the research on codes of conduct and school connectedness (Finn & Frone, 2004; Evans & Craig, 1990; Kelley et al., 2006; Sergiovanni, 2005; Trevino et al., 2003).

Two other possible points of connection involved opportunity and sanctions. Teachers reported higher incidences of violating grading policies than testing policies. These results could be interpreted as aligning with research stating that students were more likely to cheat if given the opportunity (McCabe et al., 1999). Teachers seem to have been more autonomous and have had more opportunities to violate grading policies than to violate testing policies. The results could also be interpreted to align with previous research that showed violations to be inversely related to sanctions (McCabe et al., 1999). As stated earlier, sanctions for violating a grading policy could be less extensive than the sanctions for violating a testing policy.

The various parameters of social adaptation theory (Kahle, 1983), such as organizational socialization, values, and ethics, also seemed to have been supported by the data from this exploratory study. The ability to suggest findings using individual values or individual ethical frames as the dependent variable was inhibited by the small number of replies in some categories. The small number of replies in some categories produced data

tables that violated the assumptions of nonparametric tests (Agresti, 2007; Mertler & Vannatta, 2005). However, while teachers did not demonstrate a high affinity for a given value, they did tend toward similar types of values; fulfillment values outranked deficit values by a margin of 3 to 2. The ranking also supported the suggestion by Rokeach (1973) that teachers were more intrinsically motivated than members of other professions, such as business.

This study also possibly began to fill the void in the literature of empirical data to support the idea that actions are aligned with ethical frames. When examined together (Kahle, 1983), ethical frames and values appeared to have a strong implication on actions; the model associated with this situation had a Nagelkerke value of 0.32. That is to say the regression model (Table 4.13) that utilized social adaptation theory appeared able to account for one third of the variance between teachers who violated policies and those that did not violate the policies. Teachers who reported being guided by the ethic of profession and fulfillment type values demonstrated a much lower probability of participating in ethical failure than teachers who reported being guided by a different ethical paradigm and deficit need type values (Table 4.13).

Policy Implications. In addition to theoretical implications, this study also revealed implications for policy and policy research. After eight years, it appears that aspects of the NCLB mandate are not being implemented with fidelity. Two intervening aspects, capacity and policy alignment, will be highlighted here.

First, according to McDonnell and Elmore (1987), an assumption of a mandate, such as NCLB, is that uniform implementation will occur regardless of individual capacity. With 48% percent of the respondents indicating a violation of a high-stakes testing guidelines and

45% of respondents indicating lack of self-efficacy to teach all children to mastery (Figure 4.3) , there exists the possibility that NCLB is not being implemented uniformly. Further research in this area could perhaps isolate factors needed to improve implementation or resources to provide the capacity (McDonnell & Elmore, 1987) for all teachers to meet the technical aspects of NCLB.

The second feature of policy research involves the philosophical aspect of education and the ensuing policy alignment. The enactment of NCLB changed the philosophical direction (Sunderman, Kim, & Orfield, 2005) of education in the United States from schooling for all to learning for all. However, NCLB does not appear to have changed the policies that guide its implementation. The effectiveness of the overarching federal policy is only as beneficial as the supporting state and local policies. As indicated earlier in this report, there are state and local policies in existence that are impeding the success of NCLB. Regardless, if these policies are the result of unconscious decisions or overt actions (Hirsh, 2007), they obstruct complete implementation and thus the intended benefits of student success. Through policy research, these misaligned policies could possibly be identified and corrected, thus improving the overall ability of public institutions to educate all children to mastery.

Thirdly, governing bodies often encourage policy implementation through the threat of sanctions (McDonnell and Elmore, 1987; NCLB, 2001). With 30% less (48% v 78%) teachers indicating a violation of policy with higher sanctions, it would appear these findings support the threat of sanctions as a deterrent to policy violation. However, if almost fifty percent of responding teachers still indicate a willingness to violate testing policies, perhaps the results of this study could suggests other alternatives to policy enforcement. It appears

that educators may be strongly influenced by more interpersonal measures such as collaboration and individual relationships (Tables 4.7-4.10 & 4.13). Thus, a requirement for schools to develop collaborative environments might work to reduce policy violations of NCLB.

In addition to implications at the research level, this study also seemed to provide suggests for persons working in public schools.

Implications for the Practitioner. Insights from this study provided several implications at the practitioner level. First, it is appeared that teachers felt anxiety over their ability to teach all students to mastery, especially if the students did not speak English or were not on grade level (Figure 5.2). Whether this was simply an expression of a teacher's discomfort interacting with students that may have lacked social collateral or an expression of the teacher's skill deficit was unclear. The difference between the percent (90%) of teachers with a positive self-efficacy when a student was on grade level, versus the percentage (52%) with a positive self-efficacy when a student might be below grade level, suggested that teachers were unsure of methods to help students fill knowledge gaps.

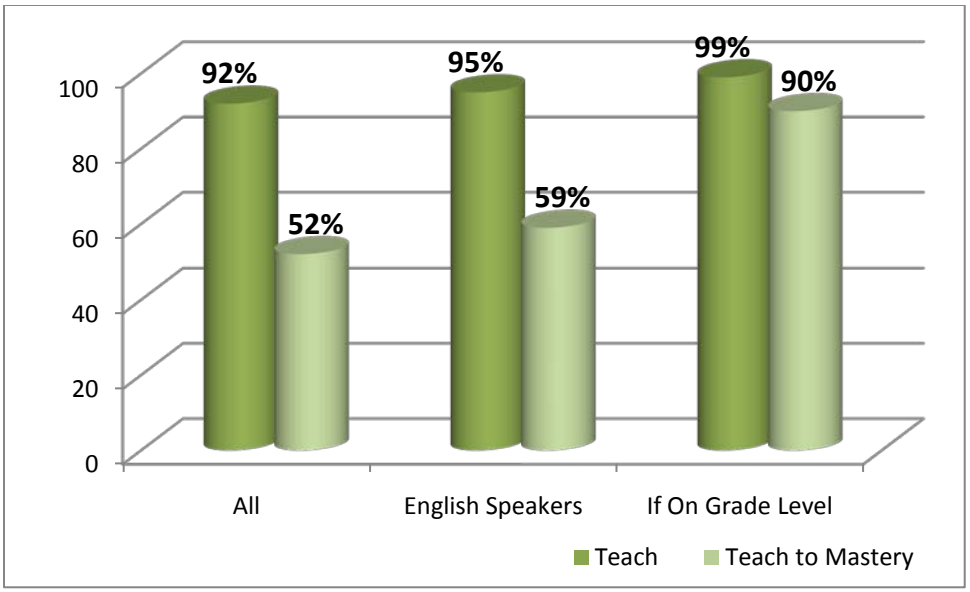

Figure 5.2. **Positive Self-efficacy (% of affirmative responses)**

Second, this empirical data suggested campus, district, and preparation program administrators, along with professional development trainers, should possibly provide more training. Training specific to effective instructional strategies could help ensure teachers not only have, but also utilize, the necessary tools to work effectively with students who have varying academic needs. As teachers become more proficient and comfortable with effective instructional tools, student achievement should rise along with teachers' self-efficacy. If the findings of this study are supported over time, more effective teaching methods that allow to teachers to accelerate learning could enable schools to more readily meet the achievement levels expressed in NCLB.

Third, the association of academic misconduct with teacher maturity (Tables 4.3 & 4.4) suggested there was a need to help our more mature teachers understand the change in the prime directive for education from that of attendance for all to learning for all. Research in cultural anthropology has informed us that a shift in cultural expectations may take up to thirty years for broad range acceptance (James, 1996). Students of today do not have the time

to wait (O'Neill, 2003). In either case, teachers again seemed to need extensive professional development and ongoing support to ensure they have command of skills to reach all types of students and ensure that these students learn at a mastery level. These skills included the ability to identify and address gaps in background knowledge; the ability to utilize high-yield instructional strategies, the ability to differentiate for various student groups; and the ability to monitor, evaluate, and report mastery learning (Marzano, Pickering, & Pollock, 2001).

Fourth, the results of this study seemed to highlight several areas of importance for administrators. To begin, it appeared important for administrators to ensure that all academic policies were in alignment with the concept of learning for all. The administrator is responsible to see that traditional actions which supported an industrial model of compliance over intellectual exploration have been replaced with actions which support mastery learning for all students. Also, the results seemed to reflect the need for administrators to effectively communicate (Tables 4.10 & 4.13) the revised expectations to teachers, especially those who had tenure in the profession. This communication should be delivered in such a manner which would enable teachers to replace former beliefs and actions with newer expectations. From the current study, as with others (Begley, 2006; Hoyle, 2002; McCabe 2005; Sims, 1994), this communication was best carried out when administrators understood the importance of positive teacher relationships and the importance of facilitating a collaborative work environment. While it is critical campuses (Table 4.9) reviewed and discussed academic policies, it appeared to be even more crucial for academic teams (Tables 4.9) to continually review and discuss the implementation of academic policies. Thus campus administrators must provide the time and means for teams to meet regularly. The professional code of conduct should be a focal point of discussion and a basis for decisions (Kahle, 1983;

Sims, 1994). Administrators should be familiar with the various values and ethical frames (Shapiro & Stefkovich, 2005) that have possibly emerged as predictor of action. It is also suggested that administrators should be able to work with teachers in a manner to ensure that all decisions are guided by the ethic of profession (Shapiro & Stefkovich, 2005) and are in the best interest of students.

In summation, this study appeared to meet its purpose by investigating the affect of organizational socialization, values, ethical frames, and social adaptation theory on a teacher's behavior in respect to academic misconduct and to suggest circumstances that could reduce acts of academic dishonesty. It also seemed to meet the anticipated significance by: (a) extending the research on academic dishonesty to teachers in public education; (b) revealing an empirical connection between organizational socialization, values, and ethical frames; (c) linking organizational socialization, values, and ethical frames to social adaption theory; and (d) suggesting possible influences on a teacher's decisions when interacting with grading policies and high-stakes testing guidelines.

Future Studies

This study appeared to have supplied answers to the articulated research questions, but as with most emergent investigations, it has generated many unanswered questions. Thus as an exploratory study (Creswell, 2003), this inquiry could serve as the spring board for a variety of future research, both with quantitative and qualitative designs.

Suggestions for Quantitative Studies. First and foremost, there is the need to replicate this study on a larger scale (Creswell, 2003). While it appears to support the parameters of social adaptation theory (Kahle, 1983), the fact remains that the study was small and

exploratory (Mertler & Vannatta, 2005). Only time and expansion will validate and solidify the apparent results from this inquiry. Second, the literature would benefit from this study being duplicated at the secondary level to determine if the findings from the current investigation are limited to elementary teachers or if the results could be expanded to teachers K-12. Third, the study should be expanded to different geographical areas to further investigate the universality of the design and results (Creswell, 2003).

Suggestions for Qualitative Studies. Several implications from this inquiry would best be enlightened by a qualitative design (Creswell, 2003). To begin, age surfaced as a strong factor in several regression models, yet the study does not explain why mature teachers appeared to participate in academic dishonesty more frequently than younger teachers. A qualitative investigation could be beneficial to determine if more mature teachers consciously ignored policies; did they sincerely not understand the policies; or did they not realize they have returned to more habitual behavior based on out-dated academic policies?

The findings regarding academic misconduct and certification method should be explored to a deeper level. A qualitative study could be designed to determine if those certified through an alternative program were less likely to participate in academic dishonesty as a result of program training, or because ACP teachers generally have fewer years of experience and thus have not had to learn and unlearn a large number of policies.

A qualitative design could also delve deeper into understanding why: (1) individuals who reported being guided by the same ethical paradigm or value would report opposite actions; and (2) why those who reported identical actions describe being guided by varying frames and values. Also, qualitatively one could more closely investigate teachers' lack of

self-efficacy to teach all children to mastery; are there reoccurring themes that contribute to the lack of self-efficacy?

Finally, this study highlights the need for an inquiry of policy alignment to answer the following emergent questions:

- What is the degree of alignment between various local, state and federal academic policies?
- Will teachers employed by local education agencies that have a high degree of policy alignment report fewer incidences of academic dishonesty?
- Is there a relationship between the ethical behaviors of adults and of students?

Conclusion

The passage of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 ushered in an era of high stakes testing and accountability for public education in the United States. On the surface this mandate professes to focus on learning and to ensure all students achieve at high levels. However, along the path from the capitol to the classroom, pressures began to build for both students and teachers (Colgan, 2004; O'Neill, 2003; Son Hing et al., 2007; Stefkovich, 2006). The pressures created by the mandated consequences and sanctions (NCLB, 2001), appear to have resulted in the unintended outcome of increased academic misconduct (Bruhn et al., 2002; Cummings et al., 2002; Evetts, 2006; Storm & Storm, 2007). While academic misconduct is not a new concept and has been the focus of research for decades, the previous spotlight has been on students (Davis et al., 1992; Ferrell & Daniel, 1995; Whitely, 1998). NCLB appears to have added teachers to the pool of individuals involved in academic misconduct (Bruhn et al., 2002; Evetts, 2006; Storm & Storm, 2007). With limited empirical

data to inform this phenomenon, the current quantitative study was designed to help fill the void. Using both descriptive statistics and logistic regression (Agresti, 2007), it also sought to identify factors that might contribute to actions of misconduct. From the data analysis, it appeared that: (a) teachers readily admitted to violating academic policies; (b) teachers questioned their own ability to teach students who were below grade level; (c) the values and ethical frame of the teacher coupled with the socialization processes of the organizations made significant contributions to the decisions of academic misconduct. The constructs listed in item (c) could further be explained by social adaption theory (Kahle, 1983) and appeared to be congruent with studies conducted in other disciplines.

These isolated factors possibly provided a foothold for administrators to engage teachers in a dialogue to reduce or prevent academic misconduct and to galvanize support for public education.

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APPENDIX A

SURVEY SANS SCHOOL IDENTIFICATION

Survey without school names

1. Introduction

Thank you for accessing this survey. The survey is designed to investigate your knowledge of certain academic policies and how you interpret those policies.The data from this survey will be used as part of a dissertation at Texas A&M University. Please be honest as you answer all the questions. It will take approximately 15 minutes to complete the survey.

This survey is handled through a third party (Survey Monkey), thus, your answers will be completely anonymous. It will send follow up requests to those that do not reply and a thank you to those that do reply. There is no link between you and your actual answers, thus, the researcher will have no access to your identity.

Thank you for your participation in this survey. Your input is greatly appreciated.

Researcher

Survey without school names

2. General Information

1. At what campus do you currently work?

- ◯ x

* 2. What was your age in years at your last birthday?

* 3. What is your ethnicity? (If you are of mixed ethnicity, you may select more than one category)

- ☐ African American
- ☐ Asian American
- ☐ European American
- ☐ Hispanic
- ☐ Native American
- ☐ Other

* 4. In what year did you graduate from a college or university and obtain your bachelor degree?

* 5. From what type of program did you obtain your teacher certification?

- ◯ College prep program that included student teaching
- ◯ College prep program that did not include student teaching
- ◯ Alternative certification program

* 6. In what year did you obtain your teacher certification?

* 7. What is the highest degree you have obtained as of the present date.

- ◯ Bachelors
- ◯ Masters
- ◯ Doctorate

Survey without school names

*** 8. What is your current (2008-2009) employment assignment?**

- ◯ Teacher-aide
- ◯ Teacher
- ◯ Instructional specialists
- ◯ Administrator
- ◯ Other

*** 9. As of May 2008, how many years have you been employed as a teacher in either a public or private school; do not include day care employment, student teaching, or substitute employment.**

*** 10. As of May 2008, how many years have you been employed at your current campus?**

*** 11. At what grade level do you teach this year (2008-2009)?**

- ☐ kindergarten
- ☐ 1st grade
- ☐ 2nd grade
- ☐ 3rd grade
- ☐ 4th grade
- ☐ 5th grade
- ☐ 6th grade
- ☐ 7th grade
- ☐ 8th grade
- ☐ 9th - 12th grade

Survey without school names

*** 12. What subject(s) do you teach this year (2008-2009)?**

- [ ] Reading/ELA
- [ ] Math
- [ ] Science
- [ ] Social Studies
- [ ] All, I teach in a self-contained classroom
- [ ] Art, music, PE, out class, etc.

*** 13. Knowing what you know now, if given the opportunity to go back in time, would you choose a career other than teaching?**

- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No

Survey without school names

3. No Child Left Behind

NCLB states that all children will be taught and will perform on grade level. The following questions will ask you about your beliefs in teaching all students.

* **1. Do you believe that you can teach all children that are assigned to your class roster?**

	Yes	No
Answer	◯	◯

* **2. Do you believe that you can teach all children that speak English and are assigned to your class roster?**

	Yes	No
Answer	◯	◯

* **3. Do you believe that you can teach all children that are performing on grade level and are assigned to your class roster?**

	Yes	No
Answer	◯	◯

* **4. Do you believe that you can teach all children to mastery that are assigned to your class roster? (For this purpose, mastery is defined as scoring 80% or better on grade level assessments)**

	Yes	No
Answer	◯	◯

* **5. Do you believe that you can teach all children to mastery that speak English and are assigned to your class roster? (For this purpose, mastery is defined as scoring 80% or better on grade level assessments)**

	Yes	No
Answer	◯	◯

* **6. Do you believe that you can teach all children to mastery that are performing on grade level and are assigned to your class roster? (For this purpose, mastery is defined as scoring 80% or better on grade level assessments)**

	Yes	No
Answer	◯	◯

Survey without school names

4. Team Work

* **1. Do you socialize with your academic team or with teachers from your campus?**

	Yes	No
Answer	◯	◯

* **2. Does your academic team work and plan together once a week or more?**

	Yes	No
Answer	◯	◯

* **3. Do you have a good working relationship with your principal?**

	Yes	No
Answer	◯	◯

* **4. Would you describe your work environment as collaborative?**

	Yes	No
Answer	◯	◯

Survey without school names

5. Values

The following section will provide you a list of values arranged in alphabetical order. Rank each value according to its importance to YOU as a guiding principle in YOUR LIFE at work.

*** 1. Rank the alphabetical list of values from 1 (most important) to 8 (least important) to YOU as a guiding principle in YOUR LIFE at WORK.**

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Being well respected	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Fun-Enjoyment-Excitement in life	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Security	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Self-fulfillment	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Self-respect	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Sense of accomplishment	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Sense of belonging	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Warm relationships with others	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

Survey without school names

6. Policies

The next questions will ask you about your knowledge and interaction with grading policies and testing guidelines.

*** 1. Are you familiar with the district's policy on grading?**

	Yes	No
Answer	◯	◯

*** 2. Are you familiar with the guidelines / rules governing district proficiency tests?**

	Yes	No
Answer	◯	◯

*** 3. Are you familiar with the guidelines/ rules associated with state testing?**

	Yes	No
Answer	◯	◯

*** 4. Does your campus review grading policies?**

	Yes	No
Answer	◯	◯

*** 5. Does your campus review standardized testing (either district proficiency, DRA, ITBS, PSAT, TAKS) guidelines or rules?**

	Yes	No
Answer	◯	◯

*** 6. Does your academic team review grading policies?**

	Yes	No
Answer	◯	◯

*** 7. Does your academic team review testing (either district proficiency, ITBS, PSAT, TAKS) guidelines or rules?**

	Yes	No
Answer	◯	◯

Survey without school names

7. Basic Grading

The following questions will ask you about common grading practices.

*** 1. Do you give grades (separate grade or extra points) to students for bringing Kleenex, crayons, paper towels, or other room supplies?**

	Yes	No
Answer	◯	◯

*** 2. Do you ever remove points from student's grades for misbehavior?**

	Yes	No
Answer	◯	◯

*** 3. Do you remove points for late work?**

	Yes	No
Answer	◯	◯

*** 4. Do you add points, curve grades, when students do not perform as expected or desired?**

	Yes	No
Answer	◯	◯

*** 5. At the end of each semester, your principal displays the percentage of failures from each teacher's class. You find out that there are more failures in your class than in any other. Will you adjust your students' scores?**

	Yes	No
Answer	◯	◯

*** 6. Have you ever read TAKS questions before the questions were released to the public?**

	Yes	No
Answer	◯	◯

Survey without school names

8. Grading Scenerios

The following items will present you with several different scenarios. Each will first ask you about an action you would take. Then you will be asked to select which one of four frameworks or reasons guided your decision. The four frameworks are listed and described below:

JUSTICE: In a justice framework, one is guided to take a specific action in order to uphold a traditional rule, policy or procedure. One guided by justice strives to apply rules or laws equally to all students.

CARE: In a framework of care, one is guided to take a specific action in order to treat the student as an individual. One guided by a framework of care strives to develop and maintain a caring relationship between self and the student. Actions of care show respect for the student as an individual.

CRITIQUE: The framework of critique is driven by equity. One utilizing this framework to make decisions will evaluate the social and political situations involved in the decision. Thus an action guided by critique seeks to level the playing field between students from varying circumstances.

PROFESSION: When utilizing a framework of profession, one makes decisions and takes actions based on the parameters of their professional code. Educators utilizing this framework seek to make decisions in the best interest of the student and abide by their duty as a professional educator.

*** 1. A student that struggles academically and comes from a very difficult home life has an average of 67 at the end of the grading period. Do you record a passing grade on the report card?**

	Yes	No
Answer	◯	◯

*** 2. In question 1, which framework most guided your decision?**

	Justice	Care	Critique	Profession
Answer	◯	◯	◯	◯

*** 3. You catch Student A copying test answers from Student B. Student B is not aware Student A is copying. Do you give Student A an automatic zero for the test?**

	Yes	No
Answer	◯	◯

*** 4. In question 3, which framework most guided your decision?**

	Justice	Care	Critique	Profession
Answer	◯	◯	◯	◯

*** 5. Your academic team is trying to decide if students that bring supplies for the classroom should be given extra points. You vote:**

	Yes	No
Answer	◯	◯

Survey without school names

*** 6. In question 5, which framework most guided your decision?**

	Justice	Care	Critique	Profession
Answer	◯	◯	◯	◯

*** 7. Before a a district proficiency test you read the questions and realize there are questions about information that you have not covered with your students. Do you quickly review the information with that students before you hand out the assessment?**

	Yes	No
Answser	◯	◯

*** 8. In question 7, which framework most guided your decision?**

	Justice	Care	Critique	Profession
Answer	◯	◯	◯	◯

*** 9. You are monitoring a TAKS test and notice that a student has missed a question. Do you in any way draw the student's attention to the missed question?**

	Yes	No
Answer	◯	◯

*** 10. In question 9, which framework most guided your decision?**

	Justice	Care	Critique	Profession
Answer	◯	◯	◯	◯

APPENDIX B

EXPANDED DATA TABLES

Table B1

Regression Statistics for Violating Grading Policy to Assignment and Preparation

Source	Variable	B	SE	Wald	*df*	Sig	Exp(β)	95% C.I. for Exp(β) Lower	Upper
Step 3	College Based Teacher Prep	1.60	.48	11.08	1	.001	4.94	1.93	12.66
	Grade			23.48	5	.0001	.26		
	Kindergarten	-1.34	.84	2.53	1	.11	.93	.05	1.36
	1st Grade	-.07	.72	.01	1	.92	32.44	.23	3.800
	2nd Grade	3.48	1.24	7.94	1	<.005	2.21	.288	364.98
	3rd Grade	.79	.66	1.42	1	.23	4.07	.60	8.13
	4th Grade	1.4	.68	4.25	1	.04	.18	1.07	15.48
	Non-NCLB Tested Assignment	-1.72	.66	.79	1	.009	.88	.05	.65
	Constant	-.13	.59	.05	1	.82			

Source	-2LL	Goodness of Fit X^2	*df*	Sig.	Nagelkerke R^2	Percentage Correct
Model	158.32	3.97	7	.78	.38	74.3
Constant	209.43					54.6

Table B2

Regression Statistics for Violating Testing Policy to Teaching Assignment

Source	Variable	B	SE	Wald	*df*	Sig	Exp(β)	95% C.I. for Exp(β) Lower	Upper
Step 3	Grade			12.44	5	.03			
	Kindergarten	1.54	.69	4.97	1	.03	4.66	1.20	18.04
	1st Grade	1.65	.63	6.78	1	.009	5.19	1.50	19.93
	2nd Grade	-.01	.75	.00	1	.10	.99	.23	4.34
	3rd Grade	-.9	.66	.02	1	.89	.91	.25	3.29
	4th Grade	.50	.57	.77	1	.38	1.65	.54	5.06
	Campus			21.86[a]	9	.009			
	Constant	-.27	.66	.18	1	.67			

		Goodness of Fit			Nagelkerke	Percentage
Source	-2LL	X^2	*df*	Sig.	R^2	Correct
Model	168.34	5.37	8	.72	.30	71.8
Constant	206.01					53.0

[a] individual campus data provides no discernable significance

Table B3

Regression Statistics for Academic Misconduct with Age, Ethnicity, and Years of Teaching Experience

Source	Variable	B	SE	Wald	*df*	Sig	Exp(β)	95% C.I. for Exp(β) Lower	95% C.I. for Exp(β) Upper
				Violate Testing Policy					
Model									
Step 1	Age	.12	.04	7.45	1	.006	1.12	1.03	1.22
Constant	Constant	-2.89	.36	63.32	1	.0001	.06		
				Violate Testing or Grading Policy					
Model									
Step 1	Age	.05	.02	6.33	1	.01	1.05	1.01	1.10
	Constant	-1.32	.20	44.14	1	.001	.27		
				Violate Testing and Grading Policy					
Model									
Step 1	Age	.17	.07	6.56	1	.01	1.19	1.04	1.35
	Constant	-3.38	.45	55.28	1	.001	.03		

Table B4

Goodness of Fit Summary for Academic Misconduct with Age, Ethnicity, and Years of Teaching Experience

Source	-2LL	Goodness of Fit X^2	Goodness of Fit *df*	Goodness of Fit Sig.	Nagelkerke R^2	Overall Percentage Correct
			Violate Testing Policy			
Model	53.62	3.8	8	.87	.17	94.7
Constant	62.68					94.7
			Violate Testing or Grading Policy			
Model	149.94	5.76	8	.67	.06	78.9
Constant	156.46					78.9
			Violate Testing and Grading Policy			
Model	33.67	8.65	8	.37	.26	96.7
Constant	43.98					96.7

Note. Data obtained from direct questions regarding grading and testing policies. Violation of late work policy is omitted from grading policy data.

Table B5

Regression Statistics for Self-efficacy with Teaching Assignment

Source	Variable	B	SE	Wald	*df*	Sig	Exp(β)	95% C.I. for Exp(β) Lower	Upper
Step 1	Percent of at-risk students	-.02	.01	4.34	1	.04	.98	.96	.99
	Constant	1.04	.49	4.59	1	.03	2.85		

		Goodness of Fit			Nagelkerke	Percentage
Source	-2LL	X^2	*df*	Sig.	R^2	Correct
Model	210.06	12.03	7	.10	.04	58.7
Constant	214.56					52.3

Note: Teaching assignments included variables for campus id, campus AEIS rating, % LEP population, % at-risk population, grade taught, TAKS subject taught, and NCLB tested area taught

Table B6

Regression Statistics for Violation of Grading Policy with Socialization

Source	Variable	B	SE	Wald	*df*	Sig	Exp(β)	95% C.I. for Exp(β) Lower	Upper
Step 2	Yr@campus	.7	.04	3.99	1	.04	1.07	1.00	1.15
	No Collaboration	1.7	.55	4.56	1	.03	3.43	1.10	9.50
	Constant	-1.86	.32	34.43	1	< .01	.16		

		Goodness of Fit			Nagelkerke	Percentage
Source	-2LL	X^2	*df*	Sig.	R^2	Correct
Model	151.88	8.53	7	.29	.08	79.1
Constant	159.55					78.4

Table: B7

Regression Statistics for Violation of Testing Policy with Socialization

Source	Variable	B	SE	Wald	*df*	Sig	Exp(β)	95% C.I. for Exp(β) Lower	Upper
Step 2	Yr@campus	.22	.06	11.19	1	.001	1.24	1.09	1.41
	NoTeam Collaboration	3.14	.98	10.36	1	.001	23.12	3.42	156.45
	Constant	-5.50	1.03	28.29	1	.01	.01		

		Goodness of Fit			Nagelkerke	Percentage
Source	-2LL	X^2	*df*	Sig.	R^2	Correct
Model	42.28	6.75	7	.46	.37	94.8
Constant	62.79					94.8

Table B8

Regression Statistics for violating both Testing and Grading Policies with Socialization

Source	Variable	B	SE	Wald	*df*	Sig	Exp(β)	95% C.I. for Exp(β) Lower	Upper
Step 1	Team does not Review	1.16	.59	3.92	1	.05	3.19	1.01	10.05
	Constant	.23	.18	1.69	1	.19	1.25		

		Goodness of Fit			Nagelkerke	Percentage
Source	-2LL	X^2	*df*	Sig.	R^2	Correct
Model	202.70	000	0	1.0	.04	58.8
Constant	207.31					58.8

Table B9

Regression Statistics for Violating Testing Policies, Both When Asked Directly or Presented in a Scenario, with Years at Campus, Campus ID, and Policy Reviews

							95% C.I. for Exp(β)	
Source	Variable	B	SE	Wald	*df*	Sig	Exp(β)	Lower	Upper
		Violate Testing Policies [direct & scenario]							
Model	Campus ID[a]	-2.44	1.14	22.48	9	.007	.09		
Step 3	Campus Not Review Grading	2.22	.85	4.55	1	.03	9.19	.01	.82
	Team Not review Grading	.21	.56	6.75	1	.009	1.24	1.72	48.98
	Constant			.15	1	.70			

		Goodness of Fit			Nagelkerke	Overall
Source	-2LL	X^2	*df*	Sig.	R^2	Percentage Correct
	Violate Testing Policies [direct & scenario]					
Model	173.04	.77	7	1.0	.27	70.5
Constant	206.01					53.0

[a] individual campus data provides no discernable significance

Table B10

Regression Statistics for Violation of Testing Policy with Socialization

Source	Variable	B	SE	Wald	*df*	Sig	Exp(β)	95% C.I. for Exp(β) Lower	Upper
				Violate Testing Policy					
Model									
Step 3	Campus ID[a]			23.43	9	.005			
	Poor Relationship with Principal	2.59	.88	8.74	1	.003	13.38	2.40	74.68
	Constant	-.08	.54	.02	1	.88	.92		

Source	-2LL	Goodness of Fit X^2	*df*	Sig.	Nagelkerke R^2	Overall Percentage Correct
			Violate Testing Policy			
Model	169.88	.40	6	1.0	.29	71.8
Constant	206.01					53.0

[a] individual campus data provides no discernable significance

Note: Socialization variables includes years at campus, campus id, campus and team reviews policies, team meets and socializes, and relationship with principal

Table B11

Regression Statistics for Violation of Testing Policy with Ethical Paradigm

Source	Variable	B	SE	Wald	*df*	Sig	Exp(β)	95% C.I. for Exp(β) Lower	Upper
Step 1	Dominant Ethical Frame			29.86	4	.0001			
	None	2.47	.50	24.35	1	.0001	11.78	4.42	31.36
	Justice	1.08	.38	7.82	1	.005	2.94	1.38	6.24
	Care	1.72	.57	9.06	1	.003	5.60	1.82	17.18
	Critique	2.03	.88	5.37	1	.02	7.63	1.37	42.61
	Constant	-1.12	.26	17.83	1	.0001	.33		

Source	-2LL	Goodness of Fit X^2	*df*	Sig.	Nagelkerke R^2	Percentage Correct
Model	221.75	.00	3	1.0	.23	68.3
Constant	257.08					53.2

Table B12

Regression Statistics for Violation of Testing Policies and Ethical Paradigm

Source	Variable	B	SE	Wald	*df*	Sig	Exp(β)	95% C.I. for Exp(β) Lower	Upper
Step 1	Dominant Ethical Frame			26.39	4	.0001			
	None	2.62	.58	20.65	1	.0001	13.79	4.45	42.75
	Justice	1.09	.44	6.24	1	.01	2.98	1.26	7.00
	Care	1.84	.62	8.68	1	.003	6.27	1.85	21.24
	Critique	2.53	1.16	4.78	1	.03	12.53	1.30	120.96
	Constant	-1.14	.30	14.83	1	.0001	.32		

Source	-2LL	Goodness of Fit X^2	*df*	Sig.	Nagelkerke R^2	Percentage Correct
Model	172.62	.00	3	1.0	.26	69.6
Constant	204.74					52.7

Note: Respondents indicated violating testing policies both when asked directly and when asked in a scenario

Table B13

Regression Statistics for the Parameters of Social Adaptation Theory

Source	Variable	B	SE	Wald	*df*	Sig	Exp(β)	95% C.I. for Exp(β) Lower	Upper
Step 2	Dominant Ethical Frame			25.22	4	.0001			
	None	2.41	.56	18.50	1	.0001	11.17	3.72	33.56
	Justice	.92	.44	4.30	1	.038	2.51	1.05	6.01
	Care	1.79	.61	8.59	1	.003	5.98	1.81	19.79
	Critique	3.01	1.16	6.73	1	.009	20.26	2.09	196.64
	Value	.89	.39	5.16	1	.023	2.44	1.13	5.28
	Poor Principal Relationship	2.12	.88	5.79	1	.016	8.36	1.48	47.10
	Constant	-1.29	.339	21.92	1	.0001	.20		

Source	-2LL	Goodness of Fit X^2	*df*	Sig.	Nagelkerke R^2	Percentage Correct
Model	176.41	1.98	6	.921	.32	70.6
Constant	220.58					54.4

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